The Nation.

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The Week.

THE statement of Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons a week ago puts international bimetallism out of its misery. It has been at the last gasp for many weary weeks, and now this lifting up of the heel against it by its old familiar friend leaves nothing to be done for it by anybody but the undertaker and the grave-digger. For Balfour has long been its last stay and hope. Did he not heroically and emphatically declare himself for international bimetallism in his Mansion House speech two years ago? Has he not been the man in all England upon whom bimetallic hopes have been fondly centred, and who was going to do great things for silver when he got office again? No one can have forgotten Mr. Whitney's glowing tribute to him when he returned from Europe on May 29. Balfour was "the brainiest statesman in England today." No wonder, therefore, that "in England the movement for international bimetallism is very strong." Business men were against it, but just look at Balfour! The "City" was against it, the Chancellor of the Exchequer was hostile, the newspapers were almost unanimously opposed, but how about Balfour?

He was plumply asked whether, as before, he was in favor of an international monetary conference, and whether he would advise the Government of which he was the leader in the Commons to invite one. He answered as plumply, it must be said for him; and when he was done, nothing was in order but a decent interment of international bimetallism. Mr. Balfour's answer was, in fact, peculiarly complete and crushing. He applied his Scotch thoroughness to the business, and got right down to what Dr. Chalmers called "the osteology of the subject." He was still in favor of an international agreement upon the currency question, but "he had no right to pledge his colleagues to such an opinion." What does that mean? It means that the matter had come up in cabinet, and that the said colleagues had bidden him let them have no more of the bimetallic nonsense. But worse was to come. An "international agreement" was one thing, and an international conference another. Even the agreement had no countenance from the cabinet, and the conference had no countenance from Mr. Balfour. A conference would be sure to be "abortive," and that would be "very undesirable." Therefore he was against calling one. He still cherishes his love for an "agreement," but it is evidently to remain a sad and hopeless passion. An agreement that cannot be talked about, that is only made more impossible by conferring about it, that no government can approach without danger of ruining everything, would smell just as sweet in bimetallic nostrils if it were frankly called disagreement. The only international agreement in sight is an agreement to drop once and for all the whole humbug of international bimetallism.

Kentucky is generally regarded as so impregnable a "Democratic stronghold" that any Republican assault is hopeless, but a review of the situation indicates that there is a fair chance of a revolution this year. It is true that the Democrats have carried the State every year since the formation of the Republican party except in 1863, midway of the civil war, when a "Union" candidate for Governor was successful; but the Democratic preponderance has been diminishing of late years. While Tilden received 62,534 more votes than Hayes in 1876, Cleveland's plurality over Harrison in 1892, when the tide everywhere ran so strongly with the Democrats, was only 40,020; and in 1894 the Democratic candidates for Congress led the Republican by only 160,350 votes as against 153,022, while the lead might have been with the Republicans if most of the party in one district had not supported the Populist candidate as the most hopeful way of beating the Democrat. Last year's total poll was almost as large as in the last Presidential contest, and if about 20,000 of the Democrats who voted for Cleveland on a sound-money platform in 1892 should vote in 1895 for the only sound-money candidate now running, Bradley would be elected. The success of the Democratic canvass is no longer to be desired on national grounds, now that it would be regarded as a triumph for the silverites, while, so far as State interests are concerned, there is no doubt that the general overhauling which would follow the inauguration of a Republican Governor would be the best thing for the commonwealth.

The issue of free coinage was the controlling one in the canvass for the late Democratic State convention. The sound-money men won a decisive victory, and the free-coinage element was beaten, nearly three to one, on a square vote upon the silver issue. The most prominent candidate for the gubernatorial nomination was Gen. "Wat." Hardin. He had always been a "red-hot" silverite, and Senator Blackburn, another of the same sort, told him before the contest was settled that he could not afford to be the candidate if the sound-money men should succeed in framing the platform. But Hardin assured the other side that he was a Democrat who would consider himself bound by the action of the majority, and the sound-money men accepted him upon the clear understanding that as a candidate for a State office having nothing to do with the silver question he would not obtrude his personal convictions. No sooner, however, had he got the nomination than he repudiated this agreement. Both Hardin and Blackburn refused to accept the action of the majority of the party as binding upon men who sought the governorship and senatorship. Blackburn took the stump at once, and proclaimed himself still for free coinage, while Hardin, after taking weeks for deliberation, at last came out on the same side. The extraordinary spectacle was thus presented of a Democratic Senator and the Democratic candidate for Governor abandoning the Democratic platform. An attempt was made on Saturday by the State central committee and other leading party men to persuade Hardin either to change his attitude or to withdraw as a candidate, but he flatly refused. Blackburn openly proclaims that the next Senator from Kentucky shall be either himself or a Republican.

Democrats who have any convictions on the financial question have thus been forced to make the choice between swallowing those convictions and standing by them at the expense of electing a Republican Governor and probably a Republican Senator. All who believe in honesty and independence will rejoice at the daily multiplying proofs that such Democrats are making the right choice. Leading party journals refuse any longer to support men who will not themselves support the platform of the party. The most prominent of all, the Louisville *Courier-Journal*, which made a splendid fight against free coinage during the canvass before the convention, will not stultify itself by advising its readers to vote for a nominee who still declares himself for free coinage. More than one other Democratic organ has taken down Hardin's name. Leading Democrats are declaring openly against him, and a host of the rank and file are evidently getting ready to vote for Bradley, the Republican candidate, who stands for the maintenance of the gold standard. The coming election will be the first when a Governor has been chosen under the Australian system, and it will be much easier and safer for the disgusted Democrat to express his feelings than when he had to proclaim *viva voce* his choice of a Republican candidate.

"No more important election has been held in Charleston and South Carolina since the war," said the Charleston *News and Courier* of August 20 with reference to the voting on that day for members of

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the Constitutional Convention; and the statement was fully justified by the facts. The convention is to frame for the State a fundamental law, whose chief feature is sure to be some severe restriction of the suffrage. Various schemes are mooted for educational or property qualifications, for plural voting on the plan of one or more ballots for the property-holder above the single one for the poor man, for "privilege votes" to be cast by the husband or other male representative of a woman who owns property, and divers other devices, all of which are intended to keep from the ballot-box most of the blacks and swell the strength of the white minority. But, despite the immense importance of the interests involved in the election, very little interest was shown in the choice of delegates anywhere, the polls in some precincts not being opened at all, nobody voting in some other cases where they were opened, and not more than one-sixth of those registered even in Charleston taking the trouble to turn out. Many people believed that the call for the convention was fairly defeated in last year's election, and many others felt that it would make little difference with the results declared now whether they voted or not. The Tillmanites will control the convention by a large majority, and the result of their work must be awaited with apprehension.

Quay's threat to "have the law" on his opponents by appealing to the courts for a mandamus compelling the chairman of the Republican State committee to produce his books and papers and cash balance, in order that it may be seen just how he has managed the committee's affairs, is in itself of inestimable value. It will be remembered that we tried to get good Mr. Wanamaker, when he had admitted that he had raised a large sum of money for Quay to use in the election of 1888, to call upon Quay, who was chairman of the national Republican committee, for an accounting of the same, but Mr. Wanamaker thought it hardly worth while. Quay has now come over to our side of the question, and confesses that he thinks it would be in the interest of honest politics to have committee chairmen show what use they make of the funds placed in their hands. He says that if Mr. Gilkeson, the chairman whom he is trying to defeat for reëlection, were to be forced by the courts to do this now, it would make his reelection impossible. It is clear that Quay is familiar with the uses which political committees make of money, or he would not be so confident as to the damaging effect of the disclosure.

The Republicans have as yet put forth but one issue for the elections of this year and 1896, and here comes the *Tribune* of Monday to tell them that it is no issue at all. "Disgust," observes the profound political philosopher now guiding Republican thought, "is not usually long-lived," and hence "it seems likely that majorities this year may be smaller than in 1894." This is alarming, and, if carried to its logical conclusion, will compel the Republican party to get up some other platform than the simple and convincing one, "We are thoroughly disgusted." But there are ways of reviving moribund disgust, as the *Tribune* shows in its own person. Everybody remembers how its attacks on the bond-syndicate operations disgusted all Republicans who happened to be business men. Like Lodge, it was for some days convinced that the contract made with the syndicate was, "on its face, the blackest ever made." But, again like Lodge, it was shamed into silence by the unanimous approval of the contract by the business world. Republican disgust with these tactics of the chief Republican newspaper might also have shown itself short-lived and died away. But the *Tribune* chooses this auspicious moment to revive it, and asserts that, whatever bankers and business men may say, "it will be impossible to persuade most American voters that the Government had any business" to prevent the suspension of gold payments. This defiance of the financial world is heroic, but, coming just at the time when the operation in question has proved itself completely successful, can only be compared to the attitude of the Swedish abbé of whom Byron tells us. He was engaged in correcting the proof-sheets of a book designed to show that the constitution of his country was indestructible and immortal, when word was brought to him that the King had just overthrown it. "Sir," said the unflinching author, "our sovereign, the illustrious Gustavus, may certainly overthrow the constitution, but never *my book*."

We knew that there would be an exposure of that California Republican Congressman, Mr. Hilborn, who lately came back from Hawaii saying that annexation was preposterous. His views no sooner reached Honolulu than the mystery was cleared up. The annexationists admit that they were deceived in him. He had not been five hours in Hawaii before he drew one of them aside, and said, "My dear sir, you'll get annexation; the next Congress is Republican, and we want these islands." This looked like far-sighted statesmanship, and the Hawaiians were naturally pained to find the same person later taking the grovelling view that the United States didn't want the islands and wouldn't know what to do with them if it had them. But the explanation is simple. Congressman Hilborn was travelling "on a pass furnished by Spreckels." This accounts for everything. Most great statesmen travel on passes, but a pass furnished by Spreckels is well known to predispose to low views and to make a man ask troublesome questions about Hawaiian ignorance and unfitness for self-government, instead of just taking the whole lot of mixed nationalities to his bosom in a burst of generous enthusiasm for liberty. Something must be done to cut off the supply of Spreckels's passes, or the whole sacred movement for annexation will be in danger.

If Mr. Whitney's well-regulated blood ever boiled in this country—and there is no record of its ever having done so—it would have great provocation to boil now over the way in which the Democratic press of this State is treating him. He gave an interview, most reluctantly, a few weeks ago to the *World*, in which he firmly and impressively put away the nomination of his party for the Presidency next year. What has the *World* done with this magnanimous act? Why, made it the excuse for sending a circular letter to all the Democratic editors of the State, asking them how Mr. Whitney would run if nominated! In explaining this astonishing proceeding the *World* says that Mr. Whitney's declaration that he was not a candidate "aroused a curious amount of talk in newspapers and among people, all based upon the idea that Mr. Whitney may be a candidate after all." Was there ever such perversity as that, to take a man's positive refusal of a nomination as evidence that he would be a candidate! And the country Democratic editors, when asked what their views on the matter are, respond with more or less seriousness, giving somewhat varying opinions as to his running qualities, but expressing no doubt whatever about his willingness to run. One of them says he "would run like a steer in the corn," which is not a happy simile since it implies devastation along the path of the running. Only two express doubts as to his ability to carry the State, which shows that the Democratic press of the State as a whole is a prudent institution, and is not blind to the advantages of a candidate who has what the Tammany Boys call "de stuff."

What is the nature of the "pull" which Tammany is still able to exercise upon several of the morning and evening newspapers? It is exerted in the form of nagging attacks upon two of the most successful reformers in municipal administration—Col. Waring and Mr. Roosevelt—and scarcely a day passes without a new development of it. There is seldom direct assault made upon either of these officials, but individual peculiarities of utterance or dress are sought out and exaggerated in order to make them ridiculous. The great good accomplished by both is not questioned. That Col. Waring does clean the streets as they have never been cleaned before is not denied, but the twist of his moustaches, the cut of his clothes, the hardship to which he subjects his force by making them keep

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their belts buckled, the fluency of his speech and his prolificacy in letter-writing—these and other peculiarities are dwelt upon at great length day after day and afford boundless comfort to Tammany and its sympathizers. Mr. Roosevelt's teeth, his volubility, and above all his recklessness in speaking directly of himself in the first person singular, are made use of to the same end. There is something more serious in this systematic and persistent effort to make these officials ridiculous than a desire to supply the "well nows" with arguments against the practicability of reform and the possibility of a theoretical reformer accomplishing anything. The real object is to prevent the public as a whole from getting the idea that good government of this city is not only a possible attainment under universal suffrage, but a very easy attainment. If that idea gets full possession of the community, Tammany can never regain power. Hence Tammany is working the press, as it is working the Comptroller, to break down the two men who are accomplishing the most for good municipal government.

No better evidence of the improving condition of business can be found than the increased receipts of the Post-office. The greatest absolute increase for the month of July is at Chicago, where the receipts this year are more than $65,000 above those of a year ago, a gain of nearly 20 per cent. But July, 1894, was a troubled month in Chicago, and such an increase is abnormal. If, however, we examine the returns from all the principal cities we see that in few cases is the gain less than 10 per cent., while in some it rises even to the Chicago rate. Boston shows receipts greater by 15 per cent., St. Louis shows 18 per cent., Brooklyn, Buffalo, San Francisco, and other centres show 20 per cent. and more. The total gain for the month of July is nearly $350,000, and probably as much as two-thirds of this is net gain. At this rate the deficit in this department, which is a chronic one, should be reduced this year by two or three millions.

Mr. Keir Hardie is making no such sensation in this country as John Burns did last year, and the reason is not far to seek. It is partly, perhaps, due to the fact that Hardie is not such a windy and reckless talker as Burns, but the main reason is that he and his fellow-agitators in England and this country have been badly discredited. Even in John Burns the great swelling words of vanity seem to have died away since the overwhelming rout of the Labor party in the English elections, and Mr. Hardie's feebler roarings will excite little but laughter. We observe that he, as President of the Independent Labor party, issued just before leaving England a résumé of their achievements and a programme for the future. They put up candidates for Parliament in twenty-eight constituencies, it seems, and did not elect a single one. From this the cheering inference is drawn that, at the next general election, "our comrades will throw themselves into the work and make it a complete success." A great deal of curiosity was expressed, at the time of the election, as to who was "financing" the Independent Labor party. It was charged that the brewers were backing them. Not so, says President Hardie: "we can say to all that no Tory or Liberal money, or money from any tainted source, has been received by us." This looks like political reform in earnest. Electoral contributions are to be closely scrutinized, and all "tainted" funds severely rejected. There is a great lesson here for Quay and Platt and Tammany. May not their present embarrassments be due to the fact that, in a weak moment, they have accepted money from tainted sources?

The recent opening of the port of Biserta in Tunis by the French republic was a pretty distinct indication of the policy to be followed in that region, and M. Leroy-Beaulieu frankly advocates a still more pronounced step in the same direction. Within a few weeks the time will expire for the "denunciation" of the commercial treaty between Tunis and Italy, and the *Économiste* insists that the opportunity must not be lost. Under the present treaty, Italy receives the treatment of the most favored nation, and the customs duties levied upon Italian goods imported into Tunis are limited to 8 per cent. M. Leroy-Beaulieu contends that France as a "protecting power" has a right to establish a customs union between herself and her ward. He thinks that to permit the importation of Italian goods on the same terms as those of France tends to create an "equivocal" situation. There is something incongruous in the spectacle of the merchandise of the protecting country paying duties in the country that is protected, and France has displayed great patience in tolerating such a discordant feature for the fourteen years of her occupation of Tunis. There ought to be complete freedom of trade between the two parties, and since this would involve a considerable loss of revenue, it is only proper that the deficiency should be made up by increasing the duties upon imports from other countries. It is true that there is a commercial treaty between Tunis and England, which fixes no date for its expiration. But that cannot be taken to mean that it shall be perpetual, and, by judicious diplomacy, England can be persuaded to consent to its gradual abrogation. In short, M. Leroy-Beaulieu concludes, France must make Tunis a veritable dependency, and thereby fortify its situation in the Mediterranean and in Africa. To this end she has been working for fourteen years, and the work must be carried on until it is completed.

It is evident that patriotism has somewhat colored M. Leroy-Beaulieu's economic views. He stands for free trade, and to advocate discriminating duties against the importation into Tunis of all goods except those of French origin is to go back to the colonial policy of the last century. As he points out, Tunis is the most prosperous of the French dependencies. Since it was taken charge of by France, it has made great progress. Many miles of railroad have been built, and many internal improvements made, all without involving the French Government in any expense or liability. Commerce has very greatly developed under French control. Fifteen years ago it amounted to scarcely 23,000,000 francs. It has now attained the figure of nearly 75,000,000 francs, and it is gaining all the time. The government is self-supporting, and that is more than can be said of most of the French colonies. While much the greater part of this commerce is with France and Algeria, the trade with other countries is by no means insignificant, and it seems regrettable that this trade should be hampered with new restrictions. Still, it is possible that the loss thus occasioned may be balanced by the gain from free trade between France and Tunis. At all events we may be sure that the policy recommended by M. Leroy-Beaulieu will be adopted, and that Tunis will eventually become practically as much a part of France as Algeria now is.

The Sultan now gravely informs the powers that he cannot consent to have reforms in Armenia carried out under foreign supervision. That would interfere with his precious sovereignty. His heart is set on reform, but he must be allowed to execute it in his own way and time. Of course that means never. The Porte is simply at its old tricks of shilly-shallying and solemnly negotiating to gain time. Turkish sovereignty is but a ghastly fiction. It has been overridden too repeatedly by the European nations to make them hesitate an instant now on that score. As Mr. Gladstone said in his Chester speech, the word "ought" means nothing at Constantinople, and the only word that counts there is the word "must." It is time that monosyllable was uttered, and uttered sharply, by the foreign ambassadors. The Turkish ministers have only been trifling with them. A little while ago the Porte's position was that it was going to reform not only Armenia but the whole empire. Reform, God bless you! there couldn't be too much of it, and all Turkey should have it. But this nonsense was well compared by Mr. Gladstone to that of an English government which should say, after a great and overwhelming agitation to repeal a particular act of Parliament, that there were a great many other bad laws which ought to be looked into and repealed after a few years' discussion.

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OHIO FOR SOUND MONEY.

THE action of the Ohio Democrats on the silver question has been awaited with a good deal of interest because the attitude of the party in that State on financial issues has often served as a sort of political barometer—especially in the direction of "low pressure." Whenever any monetary heresy gained a foothold in the country, it was sure to spread rapidly among the Democrats of Ohio. Twenty years ago they were "red-hot" for more greenbacks, the amount to be limited only by "the wants of trade." When free silver displaced greenbackism a few years later, they became enthusiastic for unlimited coinage of "the dollar of the daddies."

The recrudescence of the silver craze after the panic of 1893 was therefore, naturally enough, especially violent among the Democrats of Ohio. Their State convention for the campaign of 1894 met in September last, while the business depression that followed the panic was at its height. The financial plank in the platform was the matter of chief interest. There were sound-money men in the body, and they were willing to stand up and be counted, but the test showed that they were sadly in the minority. By the decisive vote of 468 to 319, the convention adopted this "flat-footed" repudiation of Mr. Cleveland's financial policy, and endorsement of free coinage:

"We dissent from the President's views, construction, and treatment of the silver question, and, therefore, believe that silver should be restored to the position it occupied as money prior to its demonetization by the Republican party, and to that end we favor the unlimited free coinage of silver, at the legal ratio of 16 to 1, and with equal legal-tender powers."

The convention of 1895 met on Wednesday week, and again confronted the silver issue. The committee on resolutions reported a platform which "congratulated President Cleveland that his efforts in favor of the repeal of these vicious laws [the Sherman law, the federal election law, and the McKinley law] and the upholding of the credit of the country have been successful," and reaffirmed that portion of the national platform of 1892 which declared for "the maintenance of the parity of the two metals, and the equal power of every dollar at all times in the payment of debts," and which demanded that "the paper currency shall be kept at par and redeemable in such coin." A small minority of the committee offered the following as a substitute:

"We demand the immediate restoration of the law providing for the free coinage and full legal tender of both gold and silver coins, without discrimination against either metal, as provided in the Constitution, and without awaiting the assent of England or any other foreign nation."

After speeches on both sides, the proposed substitute was overwhelmingly rejected by the convention. The vote stood 270 for the immediate and unlimited coinage of silver and 524 against, or in support of the President's policy. While last year the Democrats of Ohio in convention assembled supported free coinage in the proportion of almost five to three, this year they declare against it nearly two to one.

The history of American politics is full of sudden and sharp changes, but there has seldom been a quicker and greater revolution than is here recorded. The vote in last week's convention at Springfield drove the last nail that was required in the coffin of free coinage before its burial. When the Democrats of a State where the party has always been weak on the financial question so far recover their senses as to vote two to one against the silverites; when an unscrupulous politician like Senator Brice sees that his sole hope of a political future rests in the championship of a sound-money President; when a demagogue like Campbell, who in 1891 was "willing to chance it" on a platform declaring for "free and unlimited coinage," has to stand in 1895 on a platform from which such a plank was kept by a vote of 524 to 270—then even such purblind antediluvians as Senator Harris of Tennessee and his associates in the recent "national conference" of free-silver Democrats at Washington must realize that they are wasting their time and strength. If any doubt whatever remained that the Democratic national convention of 1896 would not take up the silver delusion, it was removed before the adjournment of the Ohio convention.

Popular interest in the Springfield gathering centred about its attitude towards free coinage. Other features of the convention require little attention. Senator Brice's speech endorsing President Cleveland as "the greatest statesman and party leader of his time," and declaring that the record of the Democratic party under him will be "the great paramount issue upon which the battles of both this year and next will be fought," was the tribute of a time-server which gains added weight from the fact that only a year ago he was himself doing all he could to mar that record by thwarting Mr. Cleveland's efforts to carry out the party's pledges as to the tariff. Mr. Campbell, the candidate for Governor, has always been a demagogue, and he advertised himself in that character afresh when he insisted upon the party's twisting the tail of the British lion as the condition of his acceptance.

Ohio is normally a Republican State—although Cleveland came within about a thousand votes of carrying it in 1892, and did get one of the twenty-three Presidential electors. At the last election for Governor, in 1893, McKinley got his second term by a plurality of over 80,000, and in 1894 the Republican candidates for minor State offices won by pluralities exceeding 135,000. The chief reliance of the Democrats in this campaign is the extraordinary coincidence that for the eighteen years beginning with 1877 they have elected the Governor and carried the Legislature that was to choose a United States Senator once in every six years; and 1895 is another sixth year. But history can hardly be expected to go on repeating itself in this curious fashion indefinitely.

THE RESULTS OF PROTECTION IN CANADA.

THE arrival of a distinguished English financier as president of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada is an event that may have consequences outside the railway world. In his investigations into the condition of the great property committed to his charge, Sir Rivers Wilson will presently discover that the operating expenses are materially increased by protective duties. He will find that for the purpose of encouraging the coal-miners of Nova Scotia a tax of 60 cents a ton upon all bituminous coal imported into Canada is levied. He will learn that the result of this tax is, not to force Nova Scotia coal up to the province of Ontario, but to compel the industries of that province to pay the tax upon coal from Pennsylvania and Ohio, which they use exclusively, and that the contribution of the Grand Trunk Railway to this tax is about $350,000 a year.

Pursuing his inquiries further, he will ascertain that upon pig iron an import duty of $4.48 per long ton is collected, while the furnaces of Nova Scotia get a bounty of $2 a ton for their product, with $2 additional for steel. In spite of these protective arrangements, the manufacturers of Ontario find it to their advantage to purchase in this country a very large part of the iron which they consume. At the prices at which pig iron has recently been sold the tariff increases the cost about 50 per cent. This cost is, of course, further increased in the processes of manufacture, and it is evident that, in the case of such vast consumers of iron as railways, this increased cost must be a very large item. Another article the cost of which is increased by protective duties, is coal oil. There is some coal oil found in Ontario, and, in order to protect the industry of producing and refining this oil, that imported from the United States is taxed at a rate which in the year 1893-'94 amounted to over 100 per cent. The valuation of this imported oil at the custom-house during that year was $420,000, and the duty collected was $466,000. That it is possible to import this article to such an extent in spite of such a duty shows the intensity of the demand, or in other words shows the severity of the tax.

We might go through the Canadian tariff in this way, showing how the cost not only of operating a railway, but also of carrying on every kind of industry, is increased by protection. The experiment has now been tried for about sixteen years. It was defended by many reasons, the principal one being that, as the United States had prospered under a protective tariff, therefore Canada must. The event has proved the fallacy of this argument. In 1874 the value of the goods exchanged

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between Canada and Great Britain was about $108,000,000. In 1894 it was $107,000,000. The whole foreign trade of Canada in the three years 1873–'5 averaged $212,000,000; for the three years 1892–'4 it averaged $229,000,000. By taking infinite pains a considerable immigration into Canada has been stimulated. Both private societies and the Government have established agencies abroad and encouraged immigrants to make permanent homes in Canada. The immigrants have come, but they have not made permanent homes. In the decade 1881-91 some 800,000 immigrants went to Canada, but during that period the population of the country increased by only 500,000 souls. This is less than the natural excess of births over deaths should have been, so that it may fairly be said that bringing immigrants to Canada is like bringing water in a sieve.

The increase of the debt of the Dominion by $100,000,000 in the last fifteen years, bringing it up now to over $240,000,000, is of course not to be charged directly to the protective tariff. But it is the natural result of the protective theory. Whenever the postulate is admitted that it is the duty of the Government to take the lead in guiding the industries of the people, protective duties and governmental extravagance follow together. The Government has no money of its own to spend, but it can extort vast sums from its subjects by the exercise of the taxing power, and this the Dominion Government has done. It is computed by a Canadian correspondent of the London *Economist*, who has carefully examined the whole subject, that British investors have altogether contributed not less than $1,000,000,000 to the development of Canada. This shows clearly enough that the interposition of the Government was not required in order to secure ample capital for Canadian enterprise. This interposition may have been to some extent imperative on political grounds: it might, for example, not have been possible to retain British Columbia except by the iron bands of the transcontinental railway. But there is no straighter road to legislative corruption than through the granting of subsidies, and such political unity as has been attained by bounties and protective duties in Canada has been purchased by grave political demoralization.

It is high time for the Government of the Dominion to retrace its steps, but it will not be so easy as it has been in our own case. The reason is, that the Dominion is so loaded with debt that it must raise a large revenue, and it will require great skill to accomplish this through a reduction of the tariff. Many of the duties imposed for the purpose of protection have proved to be revenue duties, and though the country would benefit by their immediate abolition, the Treasury would suffer. But the example set by this country will again be controlling upon Canada. The removal of restrictions upon industry here will make it impracticable to retain them there. The impulse given to our manufactures by freer trade will make it hopeless for those of Canada to try to keep up the race with the handicap of their present tariff. As Canada imitated us to her hurt in adopting the protective policy, she will eventually imitate us to her gain in abandoning it.

FRENCH COLONIZATION.

THE imitative impulse appears to affect nations as easily as individuals. We ourselves have recently constructed a very expensive navy for no assignable reason except the example set by other powers, and the European states are grasping at remote territories because they see England extending her possessions. The most remarkable manifestation of this spirit is in France. It is comprehensible that she should desire to extend her frontiers in Europe, and even across the Mediterranean Sea; but why she should undertake to found colonies in Tonquin and Madagascar is not so clear. An explanation has, however, been lately offered by a brilliant French orator, M. Chailley-Bert (who is the Secretary of the French Colonial Union), which throws some light on the question.

According to this authority, France does well to establish colonies because, beyond utilitarian considerations, there is something nobler and grander which a great nation ought to strive for. This is in effect to transmit to others the marvellous treasure of civilization which the French have inherited. France ought to perpetuate herself, to reproduce herself, under new aspects. Colonization is for nations what marriage is for individuals. It is the means whereby the species is continued; and the injunction, Increase and multiply, is laid upon the French as well as on other peoples. France was once a great nation in territory and remains one in intellect. She ought to assert her duty to be, not only to-day, but in the future, of equal greatness in thought and in dimensions.

Whatever may be thought of the validity of such an argument, it necessarily suggests, in the case of France, reflections which are painful. The French race is no longer a spreading stock. Hardly, by the constant infusion of foreign blood, does the population maintain its numbers, and the conditions of life are such as to hold the tendency to increase steadily in check. To maintain that a people which has reached the stationary state must undertake colonization upon a grand scale as a duty is paradoxical. Its marvellous treasure of civilization may be better communicated to mankind than by the assertion of military dominion over remote regions and barbarous tribes, when there is no reason to expect that French soldiers will be replaced by French colonists.

It is true, M. Chailley-Bert confesses that the ancient colonies of France were of a type that cannot now be imitated. Canada and Louisiana were colonies occupied by real settlers. Frenchmen emigrated, voluntarily or involuntarily, in large numbers to these colonies, and became permanent inhabitants. They married and reared families and reëstablished in a way the civilization of France. The conditions now render this kind of colonization impossible. There are no superfluous Frenchmen to emigrate. The climate of the new colonies is such as to prevent Europeans from reproducing themselves, and the regions are already occupied by indigenous populations. Hence such colonies as Tonquin and Madagascar are not to be settled by Frenchmen. They are to be colonies only of "exploitation and commerce." Frenchmen are not even to reside there steadily or to undertake to rear families. They are to return every three or four years to France to restore their health and to satisfy themselves that they are not exiles.

Hitherto, it is undeniable, this process of exploitation has consisted chiefly in sending soldiers to conquer the colony, and functionaries to administer it. The native population has been assured that the blessings of civilization were about to be conferred upon it, and the first step has been to double their taxes. Somehow or other, M. Chailley-Bert says, this must be changed. Colonists who are not prepared to live in these colonies or to mingle with the native races, must in some way be enabled to establish themselves there and to enrich themselves and the natives at the same time. It is obvious that peculiar qualifications are required for this task, and it is highly important, according to the standard set up by this philosopher, that the people who are ready to go as colonists should not be allowed to do so. They are the people who have been unsuccessful at home; who have lost their money; who have been dismissed from their employment — the dishonest, the spendthrifts, and the incapables. It is the people who do not want to colonize who would make the best colonists, and M. Chailley-Bert seriously recommends to his wealthy fellow-citizens that they should furnish capital to deserving young people who shall therewith undertake the exploitation of Tonquin and Madagascar.

No historical example of this method of colonization having been adopted is referred to. We have in British India, it is true, a "colony of exploitation" and not of settlement. But that colony was a consequence and not a cause of commerce, and we know of no reason to suppose that the order of events can be reversed. So far as France is concerned, M. Chailley-Bert incidentally shows why she cannot be a colonizing power. Before the liberty of testamentary disposition was abridged, younger sons were expected to shift for themselves. The family property passed to the eldest child; the cadets had to seek their

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fortunes in war or the adventures of commerce. The present system of petty entails, as Sir Henry Maine called them, has altered this. The younger son no longer feels that he remains at home on sufferance, and, as some means of support are assured him, he lacks motive for undertaking an adventurous career.

Finally, life in France is on the whole so pleasant as to make the thought of expatriation among the barbarous inhabitants of Tonquin and Madagascar far from attractive. Why should any Frenchman who can manage to live in the bright and salubrious climate of France, surrounded with all the amenities created by centuries of civilization—why should he throw away his health and his life in the pestilential swamps of a tropical colony? There is room for all in France, since the population is stationary, and the disposition to emigrate may well be regarded as evidence of incapacity. Other countries are overcrowded, or are lacking in advantages; but France should be able to support an increasing population, and is intrinsically a country which charms rather than repels. Surely her modern schemes for founding great colonies are the vainest of dreams, and compel us to apply to those who entertain them the incomparable epigram of Mme. de Staël as being a people *qui ont pris les souvenirs pour les espérances.*

MANUSCRIPTS RELATING TO AMERICA IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

LONDON, August 9, 1895.

To Americans in quest of materials relating to the colonial period of their country's story, and who have not yet made themselves familiar with the collections of manuscripts in the British Museum, a few hints cannot but be welcome. A ticket of admission to the reading-room having been obtained, the student is at liberty to work either in the reading-room itself or in the students' room. The hours for the former are from 9 A. M. to 8 P. M.; those of the latter from 10 A. M. to 4 P. M. In the reading-room, which is sometimes called the Round Room, either books or manuscripts are delivered to one; in the students' room, manuscripts only can be had. The students' room is, in fact, for the use of those alone who are searching manuscripts. It has the advantage of being in the very heart of the manuscripts department, and documents applied for can consequently be more speedily obtained there than in the reading-room. Moreover, it is a shade quieter than the Round Room is. The difficulty of the shorter hours can be got over by having manuscripts in use transferred, at 4 o'clock, to the Round Room, where the student may go on working until 8 o'clock in the evening.

The searcher of manuscripts will not fail to use the students' room from choice. To get there the new-comer, having entered the Museum from Great Russell Street, will find himself in the hall. Here he must give up his umbrella to an attendant on the left, and will get a check for it. Then, turning to the lofty door on the right of the hall, he will enter the Grenville Library, so named after the donor, the Right Honorable Thomas Grenville, the second son of that George Grenville who helped materially to found the American nation, but without intending to do so. The treasures of this temple of books must be explored at another time; but the brilliancy of the illuminated manuscripts lying in glass cases will be sure to strike the wayfarer's eyes. Passing out of the Grenville Library, the saloon of manuscripts is entered, and as the pilgrim casts his eyes to the left, the grand hall that he gets but a glimpse of is the King's Library. Standing still for a few moments, his eyes fall upon letters written by persons whose names have been familiar to him since he began to read the history of that Old England from which his fathers went forth into the New World to build better than they knew. Not to mention other Kings and Queens, he will see the signature of good Queen Bess to a proclamation against the intentions of the house of Guise and its influence over Mary Queen of Scots. He will also find letters from Sir Philip Sidney, Mary Queen of Scots, and Lord Burghley. He must feel a glow of pride as he reads a resolution of a council of war of the English commanders, after the defeat of the Spanish Armada off Gravelines, and he will note with eager interest that to it are subscribed the names of Howard of Effingham, Clifford of Cumberland, Lord Thomas Howard; Edmund, Lord Sheffield; Sir Francis Drake, Sir Edward Hoby, Sir John Hawkins, and Captain Thomas Fenner. The signatures of Bacon, Strafford, Laud, Clarendon, Hampden, Pym, Montrose, Prince Rupert, Oliver Cromwell, Admiral Blake, Algernon Sidney, Claverhouse, William of Orange, Marlborough, Pitt, Fox, Wellington, Nelson, and other famous persons will also be noted. They must be inspected at leisure on some other occasion. There is, however, one document that the pious American cannot, must not, pass by. It is in Case 4, and is a letter addressed to the Earl of Buchan of that day, and dated Philadelphia, April 22, 1793. The signature is "G° Washington." In that part of the letter that is visible as it lies in the glass case, the Father of his Country speaks hopefully of the future of the United States, and elsewhere in the same letter gives it as his opinion that it should be the policy of the United States "to be little heard of in the great World of Politics." He further observes: "I believe it is the sincere wish of United America to have nothing to do with the Political intrigues or the squabbles of European nations; but, on the contrary, to exchange commodities and live in peace with all the inhabitants of the earth, and this I am persuaded they will do, if rightfully it can be done."

With the wise words of Washington lingering in his mind, the literary explorer will bear to his right hand from Case No. 4, as he walks towards an open door which has a slip-bar drawn across it, on which he will observe in painted letters the words "For Students Only." Passing through this door, and bearing to the left, he enters a short passage which in five seconds brings him to the door of the students' room. The door is ajar; and, as the ingoer passes through, it draws back again on its spring.

The presiding genius of this *adytum* of research is Mr. F. B. Bickley, one of the ten assistants to Mr. E. J. L. Scott, the keeper of the Manuscripts Department. The literary student, be he never so humble in rank, need never hesitate to apply to Mr. Bickley for guidance; for that courteous, cultivated, and expert official is as ready to help Mr. Nobody as to give the benefit of his knowledge and experience to a cabinet minister engaged in looking up a point. Excepting writing-paper, all mechanical aid to literary work will be found at hand, as the student takes a seat at one of the tables provided for searchers. Silence pervades the room, and those at work will hardly heed the entrance and exit of those who come and those who go. Many a person whose name is known far and wide, the world over, may from time to time be seen in the students' room. Of such are Lord Acton, Mr. Andrew Lang, and Lord Wolseley, now engaged upon his 'Life of Marlborough.' When Mr. Gladstone makes researches at the Museum, he does so in the board-room of the trustees, as being himself a trustee of the Museum. Lord Acton is entitled to the same privilege, being also a trustee, but he finds it more convenient to sit in the students' room.

There are, of course, rules for the guidance of persons who use the manuscripts, whether they do so in the Round Room or in the students' room. The very least that a student can do who is accorded the privilege of delving in this mine of information is to observe the rules with strictness. They are as follows:

(1.) Readers are particularly requested not to write for more than *one* Volume, Charter, or Roll on the same Ticket, unless the Numbers required form a series.

(2.) They are also requested to use the Manuscripts with care, and specially to avoid placing the hand on the written page or miniature before them; and in no case to place a Manuscript or Book on an open Manuscript.

(3.) As a general rule, Manuscripts, while in use, are to be placed upon book-rests, or in glazed cases.

(4.) There is no restriction on copying Manuscripts.

(5.) Manuscripts of more than ordinary value can be used only in the Department of Manuscripts.

(6.) Permission to draw from the Illuminated Manuscripts can be granted only on the production of a special Letter of Recommendation for that purpose, addressed to the Keeper of the Manuscripts.

(7.) Tracing is not allowed, unless by permission of the Keeper of the Department; nor in any case from paintings in body-colors.

(8.) As a general rule, only one Illuminated Manuscript will be supplied at a time; if others are required for the purpose of comparison, the permission of the Keeper must be first obtained.

It is well to know that, on application being made to the authorities, permission will be accorded for the photographing of manuscripts, under proper safeguards. As book-rests are provided for readers, there is no cause for any one not to comply with Rule 3.

Should the student not be in quest of any particular manuscript, but be on a search in general for manuscripts relating to America or to Americans, he must examine the large volumes of catalogues which he will find on shelves opposite the entrance door. There are catalogues upon every main division of knowledge, and there are catalogues of nearly all the collections of manuscripts. The seeker will find huge volumes lettered *Biography*. On opening volume i. of this series he will find a classification of the contents under the names of the leading political divisions of the earth. Then, there are catalogues lettered *Church History*, *Naval*, *Military*, *Voyages and Travels*, *Private Letters*, *Genealogy*, *Heraldry*, and so on, upon every subject that inquirers are likely to be interested in. To many of these catalogues there is an introductory classification of subjects, with a note of the pages over which their respective entries extend. These will be found at the beginning of the first volume.

This paper being intended for the guidance

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of students of the colonial period of the United States, reference will not be made to the treasures of the Museum relating to Oriental and classical and general learning that abound in the Manuscript Department. Our inquirer may search with advantage the Harleian, the Sloane, the Egerton, the Hargrave (upon legal matters), the Royal, the Lansdowne, and the recently added Stowe collection, acquired from Lord Ashburnham for £45,000. This collection is so called because it was made by the Grenvilles, Dukes of Buckingham, at Stowe. Above all must he search the *Additional* MSS., which is the classification of the general body of documents acquired since the Manuscripts Department was founded upon the Sloane, Harleian, and Cottonian collections. Catalogues of these several collections, except the Egerton, have been printed, and, *where not out of print*, may be obtained at the Museum itself or through the agency of any London bookseller. The printed catalogue of Additional MSS. comes down to 1893. These are very valuable, being fully indexed. Those who can read Spanish will find much material relating to America in the four volumes of catalogues of Spanish MSS., edited by that literary veteran Don Pascual de Gayangos, whose assistance to Prescott is duly noted in that historian's Life. The worthy Don having finished his work of cataloguing, it is to be hoped he will now prepare an index to his catalogues. Students must, meanwhile, content themselves with the classification made in volumes ii. and iv., under the head of *Spanish Settlements in America*, of papers relating to America (North and South), Geography, and Travel. The special Catalogue of Seals in the Manuscript Department, and that of Maps, Charts, and Plans, contain much that will interest the American student. The Royal MSS. were collected by James I. for the use of Prince Henry, the too early cut-off elder brother of Charles I., and the very good friend of Sir Walter Raleigh. They were given to the nation by George II., and must not be confounded with the King's MSS., which were "presented" by George IV., on the nation's paying that most dread sovereign's debts. The King's collection consists of old MSS. mainly, many on vellum.

Let us suppose that our student has had his attention drawn to the Egerton collection. He takes down the catalogue, pores over it, and is struck by the number of documents he finds calendared under Volume 2395, as relating to New England and Virginia. Wishing to inspect these interesting papers, he has only to take one of the green-ticket forms of application which he will find at hand for the use of students, and to fill it up. The place for number of the reader's seat is to be filled up only when the student makes his application in the Round Room, for seats are not numbered in the students' room, where there is not accommodation for more than three dozen persons at one and the same time. Having filled out the form with the press numbers, exactly as they are given in the catalogue, our student must then place this ticket in a small box that he will find for the purpose, beside an attendant who sits near the entrance door. Going back to his seat, he will not have long to wait before the volume requisitioned for will be handed to him. He may then use it for the remainder of the day; and, should he be likely to require it on the day following, he has but to notify his wish to the attendant, on giving it up, to have it reserved for his use on the morrow. On giving up the volume, when he has done with it for the day, the student should make a vital point of getting back his green ticket from the attendant to whom he delivers the book. Although more than one volume of manuscripts (excepting the numbers forming a series), should not be applied for on the same form, any number of volumes, in reason, may be applied for, on separate forms, at one time.

Where a student cannot give the time to make copies himself of manuscripts, or extracts from them, he can get numbers of persons in London who are willing to do so at moderate rates of charge. Some of the attendants at the Museum will also undertake such work, which they are ready to do out of the hours of their official work. It depends upon the nature of the handwriting in the documents, but the usual charge is from 2d. to 4d. the folio.

Much valuable information with respect to the collections of manuscripts in the Museum is to be found in a 'Handbook to the Library of the British Museum,' written by Mr. Richard Sims, for many years one of the staff of that great institution. The work was published in 1854 by the late John Russell Smith of Soho Square, London. The difficulty is to get a copy of this precious tome, which has become very rare. Mr. Sims himself is now enjoying the proverbially long life attributed to pensioners. Would that he might be induced to bring out a new edition of his most useful handbook.

In a later number of the *Nation* a list will be given of some of the manuscripts in the British Museum that relate to the colonial period, mainly of the history of the United States. D. D.

LA ROCHEFOUCAULD.

PARIS, August 14, 1895.

IT was natural to give a prominent place to La Rochefoucauld in the collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français." The author of the 'Maxims' will always remain among our classical writers. Some of the maxims have become proverbial, and in our pessimistic era La Rochefoucauld may almost appear to be the deepest of our French moralists. Such thoughts as these, "There is always in the misfortune of our best friends something which does not displease us," or, "Our virtues are oftentimes vices in disguise," are not made to displease the disciples of Schopenhauer. A Darwinian philosopher, accustomed to the struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest, cannot much object to the fundamental idea of La Rochefoucauld, who justifies our own egotism by showing egotism to be the universal rule of mankind.

It would be unjust, however, to consider the 'Maxims,' as has often been done, as a bald apology for egotism. If you read them with attention, you will find that M. Bourdeau, who has published a recent essay on La Rochefoucauld for Hachette's collection, is right when he says: "The 'Maxims' teach us not to count on others, not to confide in their promises, not to expect from them more than they can give, and thus to deliver ourselves from the most frequent cause of discontent and deception; they give us, in short, an imperious lesson in self-help." This lesson in self-help could well be given by La Rochefoucauld, who spent a great part of his life—the part during which ideas are formed and the bent of the mind is taken—amid the confusion and dangers of a civil war. The life of La Rochefoucauld throws much light on the formation of his genius; the 'Maxims' seem impersonal: they are in reality the work of a man who was engaged in a great historical drama, and who was able to see the play of human passions on the grandest stage.

François, sixth Duke of La Rochefoucauld, was born in Paris, in the Rue des Petits-Champs, the 15th of September, 1613. His house is well known to be one of the greatest in France; it bears the arms of the Lusignans, a house from which it was detached in the tenth century. Like the Plantagenets, they trace their genealogy to the fair Mélusine, who figures in their arms. After the Hundred Years' War, the La Rochefoucaulds preserved large estates in Poitou and Angoumois. In 1628 Marsillac (such was the first name borne by the author of the 'Maxims') was married to a great heiress, Andrée de Vivonne; he left the year after for Italy, where he made his first campaign. On his return we find him engaged in intrigues against Richelieu and in the confidence of Anne of Austria. After a short campaign in Flanders, he was exiled to his estates from 1633 to 1637; in this interval he met in Touraine, where she had herself been exiled, the famous Duchess de Chevreuse, the great friend of Anne of Austria and the mortal enemy of Richelieu. He helped her to fly to the Spanish frontier on horseback; she left him all her jewels, which were worth 200,000 *écus*, asking him to keep them if she died, or to give them back to her some day. Richelieu, when he knew that Marsillac had helped off the Duchess de Chevreuse, sent him for a week to the Bastille, and he was exiled again for two years to Verteuil. He was there approached by Saint-Mars, but was so fortunate as not to be compromised in his conspiracy.

In 1642 Richelieu died, and Marsillac thought that the time had come for him to be in favor. "For ten years," he says in his Memoirs, "the Queen had counted me particularly as her servant, for six or seven years I had been publicly denominated her martyr. . . . She assured me afterwards that it was a matter of honor with her that I should be satisfied with her, and that there was nothing great enough in the kingdom to recompense me for what I had done in her service." The moralist concealed in the *grand seigneur* had to learn that gratitude is not a common virtue. Marsillac was disappointed when he saw Mazarin assume all the power, and he entered into the cabal of the *Importants*, who afterwards became the Fronde. The Duchess de Chevreuse, after ten years of adventurous exile, came back. She had lost her beauty, and La Rochefoucauld transferred his homage to the Duchess de Longueville, the sister of Condé. Married at the age of twenty-three to a widower who was forty-seven years old, Mme. de Longueville was very tenderly attached to her brothers. She was ambitious, proud, intelligent; she was one of the stars of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. Mme. de Nemours says in her memoirs of the ladies of the cabal that "they employed their minds altogether in playful conversation, in comments on the delicacies of the heart and the feelings; they made the merit of a person consist wholly in subtle distinctions. . . . They regarded as ridiculous and coarse whatever seemed like solid conversation." La Rochefoucauld's love for Mme. de Longueville was mingled with ambition, and, if we may believe Mme. de Sévigné, he had always more ambition than love.

The history of La Rochefoucauld is intimately connected with that of the Fronde, perhaps the most confused portion of French his-

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tory. It is not quite true to say that the Frondeurs followed only personal interests; there was among them a common desire, which was to resist the arbitrary and absolute power of a prime minister, and to preserve some authority for the French nobility. But it is quite true that every one of the Frondeurs had some personal interest, passion, or resentment to satisfy. La Rochefoucauld's ambition was to be treated at court like the Rohans, the La Trémoilles, and a few others; he claimed for his wife the *tabouret* in the Queen's presence, and for himself the right to enter into the Court of the Louvre in his *carosse*. These honors were the privilege of the peers of the realm and of the princes belonging to sovereign houses. There was a peerage in his house, but he was still Prince de Marsillac, and he asked before his father's death for another peerage. Mazarin did not comply with his wishes, and, besides, Marsillac had now become attached to Mme. de Longueville, and the *point d'honneur* more than his love obliged him to follow her fortunes. He became a rebel when she became a rebel. At that very moment, his father died; he formed a small army at Vertueil, and united his forces with those of the Duke de Bouillon.

The history of the Fronde of Bordeaux has been related many times. At the end of it La Rochefoucauld negotiated with Mazarin the deliverance of Condé, who was a prisoner at Vincennes. He tells us in his Memoirs how they met secretly at the Palais Royal, in the rooms of the Princess Palatine; the Cardinal came to meet him by a hidden staircase, with a lamp in his hand. When Condé broke openly again with the Court, La Rochefoucauld followed his cause. He confesses in his Memoirs that one day, at the Hôtel de Ville, he shut the head of Retz in a door, and told Coligny and Ricousse to kill him. Coligny refused; Ricousse simply said he had no orders from Condé. Retz was released by the great efforts of one of his friends, and, entering the *grand'chambre*, he told the President what had just happened: "Traitor," screamed La Rochefoucauld, "I care little what becomes of you." "I answered him," says Retz, "in these words: 'Very well, my friend *la Franchise* [we had given him this surname in our party], you are a coward [I lied, for truly he is very brave], and I am a priest, to whom duelling is forbidden.'" They were separated by the President. The next day the comedy followed the drama. Retz, who was the coadjutor of the Archbishop, was in a procession, in his pontifical robes. La Rochefoucauld came upon it in his coach where he was with Condé. They both left the coach and went upon their knees to receive the episcopal benediction. "I gave it to him," says Retz, "my mitre on my head. I took it off immediately, and made him a profound bow."

Condé entered into open revolt after the majority of the King was proclaimed. Gourville has given in his amusing Memoirs the account of the journey on horseback which La Rochefoucauld made from the Garonne to the Loire with his young son Marsillac, Condé, and a few gentlemen, travelling day and night by cross-roads. La Rochefoucauld had a touch of gout, and his leg was bandaged on his horse. At the battle which took place between Condé and Turenne before the walls of Paris, La Rochefoucauld received a shot which nearly put out both his eyes. Almost blind, his white coat all covered with blood, he was taken to the Hôtel de Liancourt in Paris, and his rôle of Frondeur came to an end. His terrible wound saved him from the necessity of joining Condé when he entered into alliance with Spain and began a war which lasted several years.

Gourville tells us that, as La Rochefoucauld had joined Condé chiefly for the sake of Mme. de Longueville, he inscribed under her portrait these two verses:

"Faisant la guerre au Roi, j'ai perdu les deux yeux;
Mais pour un tel objet je l'aurais faite aux Dieux."

His "objet" had not remained faithful to him; she had conceived a new passion for the Duke de Nemours, and had had the pleasure of taking him from the hands of Mme. de Châtillon, one of her rivals. Nemours was killed in a duel by Beaufort, and Mme. de Longueville turned her heart towards religion. She took an apartment in the convent of the Carmelites in the Rue St. Jacques. La Rochefoucauld was much interested in her conversion. He called her a "mother of the church." In his Memoirs he treats her with much severity. He describes, more than is becoming in him, all her weaknesses; he goes so far as to throw some doubt on the character of the relations of Mme. de Longueville with her brothers Condé and Conti, whose irritation at her engagement with Nemours was "more excusable in a lover than in a brother."

La Rochefoucauld, after the Fronde, had much difficulty in putting some order into his finances and in paying his debts. He fortunately found a very intelligent assistant in Gourville, who had been first a servant in his house and had by degrees become his factotum. Gourville's fortune is one of the most extraordinary of an eventful time. He was involved in the most important negotiations which ended in the Peace of the Pyrenees, employed by Condé and by Mazarin; he managed the finances of the La Rochefoucaulds as well as of the Condés; he amassed a great fortune, and in the end he married morganatically the sister of the Duke de La Rochefoucauld.

La Rochefoucauld began to turn his attention to letters, and found in them a solace, first in the company of Mme. de Sablé, and in his last years in the company and friendship of Mme. de Lafayette. Mme. de Sablé was the author of a small volume of 'Maxims' which has now become very rare. She had counted among her lovers M. de Montmorency, who was beheaded in 1632 by order of Richelieu. Tallemant des Réaulx, who was very evil-tongued, speaks of her as an "insigne catin" and calls her a "grosse dondon." She became a Jansenist in her old age, and aspired, like Mme. de Longueville, to become a "mother of the church." She had a salon, a sort of Abbaye-aux-Bois, where the fashion was to write maxims and sayings. La Rochefoucauld followed the fashion. His first maxims were composed in 1662, four years before the 'Pensées' of Pascal. Mme. de Sablé made copies of them, which were distributed among her friends. The 'Maxims,' by their conciseness, mark an epoch in French literature; they are like medals, and reduce an idea to its simple elements. Voltaire says with truth that "the 'Maxims' was one of the books which contributed most to form the taste of the nation and to give it a spirit of exactitude and precision."

About the long friendship between La Rochefoucauld and Mme. de Lafayette, there is nothing for readers of the correspondence of Mme. de Sévigné to learn. Add to what Mme. de Sévigné says what is found in Gourville's Memoirs. Gourville is not sentimental, and says coarsely that La Rochefoucauld had a great attachment for her—"à cause de la commodité dont elle lui était." La Rochefoucauld called Mme. de Lafayette "la vraie"—a fine and concise eulogy. There must have been a great charm in the society of the author of the 'Princesse de Clèves,' one of the most delicate works in the literature of the seventeenth century. The 'Princesse de Clèves' is the brightest and expiring ray of the society of the Hôtel de Rambouillet. The gouty Duke de La Rochefoucauld, and his friend, always lying on her bed "galonné d'or," are also the best representatives of a society which is the connecting link between the France of the Fronde and the France of Louis XIV.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE AND PUBLIC OPINION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the prompt punishment by the Mississippi authorities of Marshall and his abettors for the recent murder of Sinkler at Brandon Station merits all the praise it received in the last issue of the *Nation*, one incident connected with the trial has been almost universally condemned. It seems that among the array of counsel for the accused was the Democratic candidate for Governor. The more intelligent section of the Southern press has, therefore, criticised the unfortunate appearance in the case of one who is running for the office to which the pardoning power is attached. But future events may not justify the gloomy predictions of a speedy pardon.

The most encouraging feature of this fresh chapter in the long story of Southern homicide lies in the general indignation it aroused; and there is little doubt that if the accused had stood trial instead of pleading guilty, they would have received the maximum sentence of the law. Unfortunately, however, the brutality exhibited in the murder of Sinkler forms no very unusual exception to the ordinary run of such crimes: there are hundreds of similar cases. But it is reassuring to observe the birth of a new sentiment in regard to such occurrences, and even what many are inclined to regard as a mock imprisonment in the penitentiary is better than no punishment at all. It is to be hoped, moreover, that the day is not far distant when it will no longer be taken for granted in these parts that every man "totes" a revolver, which he is ready to use with savage effect whenever a blackguard may endeavor to "insult" him.

B. J. Ramage.

University of the South,
Sewanee, Tenn., August 24, 1895.

OWEN AND EVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation's* notice of the 'Life of Richard Owen' (in No. 1569), I think that there is a misapprehension of Owen's actual position in regard to the doctrine of Evolution. I took a letter of introduction to him from Agassiz in about the year 1858, and I saw him from time to time until near the date of his death. He lived at Hampton Court and I at Clapham Junction, and it happened sometimes that we went out from London together. I remember very distinctly a conversation we had on the train soon after the death of Agassiz, in which he lamented that our great naturalist had held out so obstinately against Evolution, and said that if he could have had personal intercourse with him in those later days, he was convinced that he would have brought him over to a recognition of the law. His words

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were: "If I could have had half-an-hour's conversation with Agassiz, I believe I could have convinced him of the truth of Evolution." He made no reserve in admitting the process of Evolution, but he did not accept Natural Selection as the sufficient and final cause of Evolution, and he insisted equally on the Divine Intelligence as the directing agency in Evolution.

He had, no doubt, in earlier years, fought hard against the apparently mechanical process of creation, as many early opponents of Evolution who now admit it considered it, because the theological bias in him was strong, as it was in Agassiz, and it was a ground of sympathy between them. With Agassiz there was another consideration which prejudiced him in the weighing of the new doctrine, in that it overstepped the limits of physical science. I remember his saying to me once, in the woods, that the question which was involved in the doctrine went into Teleology, and that this was the province of theology, not of natural science, whose business it was to observe and classify, not to investigate the final cause. Any man who has been reared in the influences of the old theology and has succeeded in freeing himself in mature life from its bias, will judge tenderly these two intellectual giants, in whom reverence for truth as they understood it was the feeling at the bottom of their science. But Owen always retained a little of the narrowness and bitterness of Scotch theology, from which Agassiz was free, and no doubt the extreme liberality of the latter's religious notions kept him from that reaction towards extreme scepticism which has been a powerful stimulant in the progress of the doctrine of Evolution. Perhaps, when we get to the end of the matter, we shall find that Agassiz was not so entirely mistaken as he is now considered.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Laufenburg, August 15, 1895.

ENGLISH LIVES OF TURGOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a slight misstatement in the *Nation* of August 8, in the review of Stephens's Life of Turgot, or rather in the preface of the book itself and quoted by your reviewer. There *is* another Life of Turgot in English, a translation by Melville B. Anderson of the one by Léon Say, published by A. C. McClurg & Co. of Chicago in the "Great French Writers" series. This set of translations is probably not known in England; hence the author's statement.—Yours very truly,

Mary W. Plummer.

Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y., August 24.

"INDUSTRIOUSLY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of this word there was long current, in the language of our forefathers, an acceptation which American compilers of dictionaries, without exception, pass by unrecognized. To passages exemplifying it, from Dryden and Swift, Dr. Johnson prefixes the definition "for a set purpose, with design." This, however, on the presumptuous assumption that he misunderstood his authorities, all his successors on our side of the Atlantic, Dr. Webster and the rest, alter into "with care," or else give nothing in its stead. The frequency of the by-gone occurrence of *industriously*, as distinctly one with "designedly," "purposely," "intentionally," "voluntarily," is attested by the annexed quotations:

"The chiefe remarkable thing in this Ile, from all Antiquity, is the burning Hill of Aetna. . . . The North side, toward Rindatza, at the Roote beeing vnpassable steepe, yet gathering, on all parts, so narrow to the top as if it had beene *industriously* squared." William Lithgow, *The Totall Discourse*, etc. (1632), p. 390.

"Of all which every man living, that injoyeth but the use of reason, findeth naturally within himselfe, at the very first naming of them, a plaine, complete, and satisfying notion, which is the same, without any the least variation, in all mankind, unlesse it be in such as have *industriously*, and by force, and with much labour, perplexed and depraved those primary and sincere impressions which nature had freely made in them."—Sir Kenelm Digby, *Two Treatises* (1644), vol. i., p. 6 (ed. 1645).

"Frederick perceived that his arrow had a little paper rouled about the end thereof, instead of a pile, and *industriously* accommodated." "At the end of the dance he let fall, *industriously*, his cypresse." Anon., Translation of De las Coveras's *History of Don Fenise* (1651), pp. 177, 239.

"The truth is, he *industriously* deferr'd the assailing those whom, for Oroondates sake, he lov'd." Sir Aston Cockain, Translation of Calprenede's *Cassandra* (1652), vol. i., p. 126.

"But an exact concatenation of the Series of things throughout is more than ought to be expected; no such Accuracy being *industriously* intended." Rev. Dr. Henry More, *Conjectura Cabbalistica* (1653), p. 145 (ed. 1662). "The Cherubims . . . were *industriously* hid from being any Object thereof" [*i. e.*, of worship]. Id., *A Brief Reply*, etc. (1672), p. 37.

"We have wordish Quibbles . . . studiously and *industriously* affected." Rev. John Sergeant, *Sure-footing* (1665), p. 176.

"The Romans were fond of thinking that Providence *industriously* adapted the various dispositions of its kings to the different necessities of its people." Goldsmith, *Roman History* (1769), vol. ii., p. 23 (ed. 1786).

"I had sent to the auctioneer, who could prove that the watch had been offered to him for sale, and whose evidence would, of course, have operated in my favour; but he was *industriously* out of the way." Rev. Dr. John Trusler, *Modern Times* (1785), vol. i., p. 70.

"The three pyramids of Egypt have been *industriously* built upon the first hill between Cairo and the western bank of the Nile." Rev. G. S. Faber, *Origin of Pagan Idolatry* (1816), vol. iii., p. 244. "It is not likely that this plural term would, as it were *industricusly*, have been employed in a sense so very different from that in which it everywhere else occurs." *Id.*, *Eight Dissertations* (1817), vol. i., p. 421 (ed. 1845). "But our legislator *industriously* joined the two together, employing at once both action and precept." *Id.*, *A Treatise on . . . the Dispensations* (1819), vol. ii., p. 192 (ed. 1823). Faber repeatedly uses *industriously* as in these citations.

Sedulo and *studio*, in classical Latin and in unclassical, respectively signify both "diligently" and "on purpose." When, therefore, as in several instances not here produced, their contexts being indefinite, they are rendered by "industriously," the sense which the translators intended by their choice of adverb is uncertain.

That *industriously* has often denoted "with care"—one of Dr. Webster's definitions of it, but overpassed by Dr. Johnson—is not to be denied, as I could show by numerous quotations.

The *industriously* now especially under consideration, though not corresponding, in signification, with *industrie*, is exactly equivalent to *de industria*, *ex industria*, etc., by which it was suggested.

Matching this *industriously* is *industrious*, "intentional," "purposed," etc., to which, likewise, Dr. Webster and others refuse record, as though Dr. Johnson were mistaken in supposing it to have warrant. Here follow proofs of its existence:

"It was the part of a shamelesse Cham to bee an *industrious* spectator of his father's nakednesse." Nathanael Carpenter, *Achitophel* (1629), p. 8.

"Some there are suspect this mistake to have been not involuntary, but *industrious*, in him." Hamon L'Estrange, *The Reign of King Charles* (1654), p. 188 (ed. 1656).

"His [Elijah's] *industrious* affectation of the wilderness." Rev. G. S. Faber, *Eight Dissertations* (1817), vol. i., page 269 (ed. 1845).

In its sense of "careful," *industrious* could be illustrated to profusion.

To turn to *industry*, it is not inapposite to point out that, in the seventeenth century, reminding one of *chevalier d'industrie*, it was occasionally put for "device," "scheme," "stratagem":

"Fenise, who had a subtle wit, made the Vice-Roy yet more beholden to him, teaching him an *industry* how to make these slaves feele the effect of the evill they had plotted." "On the contrary, the *industry* I have advised my selfe of tends onely to its conservation and safety." "If you please, this is the *industry* we will use." "But, if heaven inspire you with some *industry* to deliver me from the extreame torment which my soule suffereth," etc. Anon., Translation of De las Coveras's *History of Don Fenise* (1651), pp. 111, 156, 179, 188.

"And, to render their Design less perceptible, they added this *industry*, That Liante should continue in his dissatisfaction of Iphigenes," etc. Major J. Wright, Translation of Bp. Camus's *Nature's Paradox* (1652), p. 334.

"It happened that a Lord of great birth and quality . . . fell not altogether in disgrace, but in disesteem, with the Prince, by the artificious *industries* of a Favourite that loved him not." "To let him burn in a little fire, and take her vengeance in this love by a new *industry*, she makes no shew to understand these Enigma's, nor did say anything in particular." J. Jennings, Translation of *Elise* (1655), pp. 4, 135.

Of the *industry* in the foregoing quotations lexicographers know nothing, and nothing of the Gallicism *industriously*, "ingeniously":

"The first part was full of little Chambers, so *industriously* built that they seemed to be cut out of the Rocke it selfe." "The seeling was of a hollow mirror, made of many Venice glasses, so *industriously* joyned together, that, by a miracle in perspective, you would have thought your selfe to be under a vault of an extreame highnesse." William Browne, Translation of *Polexander* (1647), Part I., pp. 26, 28.

By this letter, as by many another of mine, it must have been made evident how very imperfect are nearly all existing English dictionaries, for want, on the part of their compilers, of a competent acquaintance with our literature. If not constructed on historical principles, and if not the outcome of extensive collaboration, no longer can any dictionary of our language claim to be of the first rank, on grounds that are tenable. F. H.

Marlesford, England, August 1, 1895.

Notes.

The Century Co.'s announcements for the fall season embrace 'Old Dutch and Flemish Masters,' Cole's engravings, and text by Prof. John C. Van Dyke; a wholly new edition of Gen. Grant's Memoirs, annotated by Col. F. D. Grant; 'Washington in Lincoln's Time,' by Noah Brooks; 'Electricity for Everybody,' by Philip Atkinson; 'Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire,' by Miss Anna L. Bicknell; 'Municipal Government in Continental Europe,' by Albert Shaw; 'The Other Jungle Book,' by Rudyard Kipling; 'Kitwyk Stories,' by Anna Eichberg King; 'A Madeira Party,' by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell; 'Notes

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of a Professional Exile,' by E. S. Nadal; and 'Rivalries of Long and Short Codiac,' by George Wharton Edwards.

The first autumn announcements of G. P. Putnam's Sons contain, among others, the following titles: 'The History of the Fifth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. William H. Powell; 'Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages,' by Geo. Haven Putnam; 'The Literary History of the American Revolution, 1765-1783,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler; 'Echoes of the Playhouse: Reminiscences of some of the Past Glories of the English Stage,' by Edward Robins, jr.; 'Earthwork out of Tuscany,' by Maurice Hewlett; 'The Midsummer of Italian Art,' by Frank Preston Stearns; 'Buddhism: Its Origin, its Ethics, and its Sacred Books,' by T. W. Rhys-Davids; 'Selected Essays from Schopenhauer'; 'The Epic of the Fall of Man: A Comparative Study of Cædmon, Dante, and Milton,' by S. Humphreys Gurteen; and 'A Metrical History of the Life and Times of Napoleon,' compiled in songs and poems by William J. Hillis.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have nearly ready an illustrated edition of De Amicis's 'Cuore.'

Stone & Kimball have in press a new volume of verse, 'My Lady of Dreams, and Other Poems,' by Eric Mackay.

'The Vacant Chair, and Other Poems,' by Henry Stevenson Washburn, will be published directly by Silver, Burdett & Co.

The Hakluyt Society will issue almost immediately a volume from the pen of its president, Mr. Clements R. Markham, C.B., consisting of a translation of the journal kept by Pedro Sarmiento during his voyage to Magellan's Strait in 1579-'80, supplemented by documents procured from the archives at Madrid. Another of the Society's volumes, which, under the joint care of Mr. C. A. Gosch and Mr. Miller Christy, deals with the Arctic voyages of Jens Munk and James Hall, is in the press and may be expected shortly; while a commencement has also been made with the printing of Dr. Robert Brown's edition of the 'Travels of Leo Africanus.'

The "Society of Iconophiles of New York," an inner ring of the Grolier Club, has progressed so far as to issue "publications" Nos. 1-4, of each of which only "101 impressions have been taken and the plate destroyed." The subjects chosen for illustration are "St. Paul's Chapel," "The Chancel of St. Paul's Chapel," "Fraunce's Tavern," and the "Roger Morris House"; and the plates from the burin of Mr. E. D. French make charming prints illustrative of Old New York. Each is issued in a wrapper on which are given brief historical notes concerning the subject of the plates, but these are hardly up to the quality of the engraving, for it is stated of St. Paul's that, "in 1774, Alexander Hamilton, then but seventeen years old, delivered a speech against the Stamp Act in the Chapel," though the only speech we know of Hamilton's making at that epoch was "in the fields," eight years after the Stamp Act was repealed; and, further, that "Dr. O'Meara," Lord Howe's military chaplain, preached a sermon in this church, though O'Beirne was the man. As the wrapper will in most cases be discarded, these blemishes detract in no sense from the value of the plates.

The 'Summary of the Vital Statistics of New England for the Year 1892' has just appeared (Boston: Damrell & Upham). These statistics are compiled under the direction of the secretaries of the boards of health of the New England States, and their value will be greater henceforth, as it is only since 1894 that the reports from the State of Maine have become available. In some respects the figures are still unsatisfactory, the returns of births being regarded as very incomplete in both Maine and New Hampshire. It is believed that 3,300 in Maine and 2,000 in New Hampshire should be added to the numbers reported, and this conjectural correction has been made. Even when thus increased, the New England birth-rate is lower than that of any of the principal countries except France and Ireland. The death-rate, however, is lower than that of most of these countries, while the marriage-rate is the highest known. Evidently the day of small families has come for New England, and in some of the States the number of married people having only one child is very large.

'Game Birds at Home,' by Theodore S. Van Dyke, is a dainty little volume bearing the imprint of Fords, Howard & Hulbert, New York, but copyrighted by the author, who is favorably known by previous sketches of outing and sporting, chiefly in California. 'Game Birds' consists of fourteen short stories about our best-known game birds, such as the bobwhite and other quails, several species of grouse, the turkey, woodcock, snipe, plover, various geese and ducks, and a few others. The articles are written in the vein of an enthusiastic sportsman's reminiscences, in general with much good feeling, but also with much mere sentimentalism and apparent straining for verbal effect. Those who like an extra gamey flavor in the literature of their craft will be best pleased with the book, which is a little too "high" for our taste. The description of riding into a flock of wild geese is one of Mr. Van Dyke's best.

Mr. Franklin B. Wiley (A.B. 1886) has just brought forth a new 'Harvard Guide-Book' (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever), which is both accurate and agreeable, as it is written *con amore* and enlivened with much pertinent quotation and historical anecdote, besides being copiously illustrated and supplied with a good map and reference index. It shows in a striking degree the present size of the University.

A valuable paper by Signor Vittorio Cian has been taken from the Memoirs of the Academy of Turin and published as a byprint: 'L'Immigrazione dei Gesuiti Spagnuoli letterati in Italia' (Clausen). Signor Cian begins with a study of the two currents of feeling, one favorable and the other unfavorable to the Jesuits, which were running in Italy at the time of the immigration, and describes the reception which the Spaniards received. He then goes on to an appreciation of the characteristics of the new-comers, and of their works, which overcame the prejudices by which they were at first met, and which enabled them to win their way. Incidentally he gives much interesting information on their relations with Italian writers of the time. It will be seen that his memoir does not lack immediate interest. The interrelation of literatures and their influence upon each other were, perhaps, never more studied than now.

Two recent publications, 'Les Dessous de l'Histoire: La Vérité sur Jeanne d'Arc,' by Francis André (Paris; Chamuel), and 'Le Portrait de Jeanne Darc, par un Essénien du XIXe Siècle' (same publisher), are to be recommended for perusal to those only who wish to realize what incredible absurdities the revived cult of the Pucelle occasionally calls forth. The former is a painfully pretentious treatise of nearly four hundred pages, written from the ultra-orthodox standpoint; the second, a pamphlet, fiercely anti-Catholic, yet seeing in the Maid not only a saint but the "Messiah of Nations," the "Spirit of Truth promised by Christ."

To say that passages in C. Wagner's 'La Vie Simple' (Paris: A. Colin & Co.) remind one of the seventeenth-century moralists, and again of Mme. de Maintenon's admonitions to the inmates of St. Cyr, is not praising the book too highly. The author believes in a regeneration of modern society through individual effort; his book is serious, but in no sense narrow or pessimistic. M. Wagner's previous publications have met with deserved recognition in France. His 'Jeunesse' must be known to some of our readers in Redwood's English translation, 'Youth' (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1894). We trust that this new work will be equally well received and widely read.

'Le Roman d'une Âme,' by Jean Bertheroy (Paris: Colin), is an interesting psychological study in form of a confession. With delicate frankness the heroine discloses the state of her soul during the stages of girlhood, young womanhood, and matrimony, and though her story is not entirely free from adventures beyond the bounds of conventionality, she has no transgressions of the grosser kind to record.

Daniel Lesueur, in his latest novel, 'A Force d'Aimer' (Paris and New York: A. Lemerre), relates a story of sin against society and the State, and its wages, without a morbid relish for particulars or an undue accumulation of horrors. A thread of socialism of a mild form is interwoven with the plot, and Panama Canal swindlers and Cornelius Herz are castigated under the names of the Channel Tunnel Company and M. Vallery. Some touching situations in the story are due to the author's clever use of his insight into child psychology.

Advanced students of German, and all who have occasion to use the language synthetically, will be interested in a work which, though not quite recent, has not, we believe, attracted much attention in this country: Schlessing's 'Deutscher Wortschatz, oder der passende Ausdruck' (Stuttgart: P. Neff; New York: Westermann & Co.). An explanation of its arrangement and use is here unnecessary, since the author has avowedly followed very closely Roget's 'Thesaurus,' a book which may be presumed to be within everybody's reach. Not only the general plan of the two works is the same, but the 1,000 idea-groups are identical in both to the point where the details of the English and the German "word-treasuries" make divergence unavoidable. The volume is handy, printed in good type, and comparatively inexpensive.

The *Revue Critique* of July 29, among other interesting literary announcements, says that the University of Budapest is now paying what is, in some sort, a debt of honor by the publication of the complete works of its founder, Cardinal Pazmany (1570-1637), the Magyar Bossuet, as he has been somewhat ineptly called, who not only was one of the fiercest opponents of Protestantism in the Reformation struggle in Hungary in the sixteenth century, but was also the first great prose-writer among the Magyars. His works, divided into two sections, according as they are written in Latin or in his vernacular, will be published in fourteen volumes by the theological faculty of the University. The first volume of each series has just appeared, with an introduction and notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. present the first number of a new magazine—the *Badminton*—devoted to sports and pastimes. It is edited by Mr. A. E. F. Watson, who has so successfully carried out the Badminton Library of sporting handbooks, and many of the contributors to

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that excellent library have agreed to assist in the new venture. In this first number Mr. Hutchinson discourses entertainingly on the subject of Golf Championships, the Earl of Onslow on Wheeling in London, Mr. C. B. Fry on Cricket, and so forth. The print is clear, and the illustrations sufficiently numerous if not remarkable in quality. There is certainly in England, and probably here too, a large body of readers who will prefer these carefully written expert opinions on current sporting topics to the hasty and often ill-considered judgments of the daily press.

Sun and Shade for June and July (New York Photogravure Co.) presents the usual medley of plates from life and nature and art-product, but nothing calls for mention except the two specimens of color-printing in three impressions, which mark the progress of a process that is certain to be highly perfected and to have a far-reaching influence on the popularization of art.

Africa and the Polar Regions were the subjects which aroused the greatest interest at the recent Geographical Congress in London. Sir John Kirk, the veteran companion of Livingstone, introduced the former with a valuable paper on the white colonization of tropical Africa, in which he stated that this was possible only on the plateau to the north of the Zambesi, the uplands of British East Africa, and probably the mountainous districts of Abyssinia. He was followed by Henry M. Stanley, M. P., who, in a characteristic speech, urged the feasibility of colonization, but said that commercial development was all for which he looked at present. The feature of the session, however, was the deeply interesting account given by Slatin Pasha of his escape from his eleven years' captivity, and of the present condition of the Mahdist Sudan. He confirmed the death of Gordon, of which some have always doubted, by saying that, after his murder on the highest steps of his palace, "his head was severed from his body and was mockingly shown to me as I lay in irons." The culminating point of interest in the discussion upon the Polar Regions was reached when Herr Borchgrevinck (described by Dr. John Murray as "the first man, perhaps, who had put his foot upon the earth of the Antarctic continent") gave his graphic account of his voyage in an Australian whaler last winter as a man before the mast. He closed with an earnest appeal for the sending out of a scientific expedition to those regions, saying that he himself was "perfectly ready and willing to become the leader of a landing party to remain throughout the winter months at Cape Adair," on the continent. From this point the South magnetic Pole was only 160 miles distant, and he believed that it would be quite possible to reach it with dogs and sledges. A resolution was adopted by the Congress recommending the several scientific societies throughout the world to urge this work, "the greatest piece of geographical exploration still to be undertaken."

A new hurricane station has been established in Yucatan, and observations will be cabled from Mérida to New Orleans during the hurricane season, or when severe storm development is noticed. This station is the first link in what will probably be a long chain of stations along the borders of the Gulf. In this plan a thorough coöperation on the part of the Mexican Meteorological Bureau will, it is hoped, be secured, as it would be of the greatest assistance.

But one MS. was received in competition for the prize of $400 given by Dr. Gould's *Astronomical Journal* "for the most thorough discussion of the theory of the rotation of the earth with reference to the recently discovered variations of latitude." The paper was sent and the prize received by Prof. Newcomb. The other prize, of $200, was given to Mr. Paul S. Yendell, who made the best series of determinations of maximum and minimum of variable stars.

A year ago the students of history and geography in the University of Paris were invited to prepare, during the year, theses on subjects to be chosen by themselves and to be approved by the faculty. A score of young men responded to the appeal of their teachers and were then left to their own resources. Their examination and the discussion of their papers took place recently before two committees, presided over by MM. Himly and Lavisse, and the results proved to be most gratifying, five or six of the productions being, according to M. E. Lavisse, worthy of immediate publication, and others requiring but little additional labor. This new test of proficiency entitles the successful student to a new kind of diploma ("d'études supérieures d'histoire et de géographie"), which may be taken even by those not holding the bachelor's degree. It is hoped that foreigners also will avail themselves of this opportunity of obtaining recognition of their work in the University after a comparatively brief residence. A new effort to attract foreign students is being made by the "Comité de Patronage des Étudiants Étrangers," which, at a meeting held recently at the Sorbonne, formed a Franco-American committee with MM. Bréal, Levasseur, Lavisse, and others as members, and M. Paul Melon as secretary.

A genuine American artist, and no less genuine man, Mr. Thomas Hovenden, who lately sacrificed his own life in endeavoring to save another's, is worthily commemorated in the series of imperial panel photographs for which Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has won distinction.

—The death on Monday of Mr. Henry O. Houghton, founder of the Riverside Press and head of the eminent Boston publishing-house of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., was not unexpected, though he went to his office, if not to business, to the very last. He was a native of Vermont, born in 1823, and a graduate in 1846 of the University of Vermont. His first partnership as a publisher was with the late M. M. Hurd, and he gradually fell heir to the houses of Ticknor & Fields and Osgood, which gave his firm a practical monopoly of the New England classics in prose and in verse, and insured its remarkable prosperity. Mr. Houghton's business sagacity was not more marked than his kindness of heart, and his relations to his employees of the Riverside Press were most exemplary. He had, too, a pride in his function as publisher which sometimes led him to embark in enterprises without the hope of profit, like the magnificent issue of Prof. Child's 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads.' His views in regard to international copyright were tinged at first with the spirit of protectionism, or, in other words, with provincialism; but he soon found himself in accord with the new order. His genial presence will be much missed; his name will doubtless long be handed down in the imprint of his associates and successors.

—The remains of Sergeant Floyd were reinterred at Sioux City on August 20, in the grave where they had been discovered last June. His skull, of which plaster casts had been secured, was enclosed in an urn made for the purpose, with inscriptions cut into the material. With the skull was placed a copy of Floyd's journal, which he had kept up until the second day before his death, and which, as printed last year by the American Antiquarian Society, was the first narrative of the Lewis and Clark expedition that came from the press as its author wrote it, unmarred by editorial improvements. The day was hot, but a crowd, clustering around the grave, hung like a swarm of bees all over the narrow and sharp bluff. Prof. James D. Butler of the Wisconsin Historical Society had brought from the archives of that association the original of Floyd's Journal, which he held in his hand while delivering a funeral discourse. Other speeches were made; the urn and a casket containing other bones were deposited in the grave among decayed fragments of the Floyd coffin. The spot was marked by a slab of limestone about 8x3 feet and a foot thick, on which the following legend had been engraved: "Sergeant Charles Floyd, died August 20, 1804. Remains removed from 600 feet west and reburied at this place May 20, 1857. This stone placed August 20, 1895." In the evening Dr. Elliott Coues, editor of the admirably painstaking reprint of Biddle's narrative based upon the journals of Lewis and Clark, delivered a lecture on the expedition, which he summarized and celebrated as "our national epic of exploration," and was followed by Prof. Butler with a plea for some grand memorial in honor of Floyd.

—The languishing condition of the book trade in France is discussed by M. Albert Cim in the *Revue Encyclopédique* of July 15 and August 1. He confines himself mainly to new publications of the size published at 3 fr. 50c., and usually sold for 2 fr. 75c. Considering first the proper season for launching books on the market, he observes that formerly October was the favorite month, as marking the end of the vacation; but the present preponderance of opinion inclines in favor of March, April, and May, for a variety of reasons. People have no time to read in winter, being taken up with theatres and social duties, while, in summer, book-buyers, consisting mostly of ladies, are at a loss what to do with themselves, and have to read as a last resort. Then, again, books published in October and November have hardly appeared before they are driven out of view by the rising tide of gift-books that floods the book-stores in December; and when the tide has ebbed, they have already lost the charm of novelty, so that they are unable to compete with the fresher harvest of January. In like manner the newspaper reviews of books published in the autumn have to stand over till the new year to make room for notices of the holiday publications which have the right of way. And at this point M. Cim takes up the question as to what is the efficacy of newspaper notices of new books. Twelve or fifteen years ago a puffing notice, an "echo," on the first page of one of the leading journals was amply worth to a publisher the 300 or 400 francs that he had to pay for ten lines. Ten years ago the advertising manager of Hachette & Co. said to M. Cim: "As soon as an article on one of our books appears in the *Journal des Débats* (which has a circulation of only 9,000 copies), we notice the effect in the calls for copies the same evening." But the thing was overdone, and now the public declines to be fooled by the most elegant "derangement of epitaphs." As for the more literary book reviews, they have

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ceased to appear. Publishers generally send at least two copies of their publications to every journal, one for the manager and one for the reviewer. These copies are always accompanied by a ready-made puffing review, usually prepared by the author himself, and bearing the request, "Please insert." By inserting this notice the manager saves the salary of the reviewer, and can keep both copies of the book. It may be noted, however, that in many cases the reviewer draws no pay at all, and gets nothing but the book.

—Among various other reasons for the decline of the reading habit, M. Cim mentions the bicycle fever, which has also injured the business of the theatres, cafés, etc.; the quantity of reading-matter furnished by the newspapers; the excessive production of books, many of which are published for account of the authors, who are usually out of pocket by the venture. The booksellers have endeavored to arrest the decline of their business by forming a syndicate, which has entered into negotiations with the publishers' syndicate with a view to fixing uniform prices and trade discounts, and cutting off the supplies of dealers who undersell. This measure was principally aimed at the large department or dry-goods establishments, like the Bon Marché and the Louvre, which have taken over bookselling and obtain extra discounts by buying large quantities. Booksellers appear to be vanishing in France as rapidly as elsewhere, especially since publishers have begun to announce that they will mail books free of postage on receipt of the regular price. Popular authors, however, do not suffer from the general neglect of literature. Zola heads them all. Of 'La Débâcle' 187,000 were sold, of 'Nana' 171,000, of 'L'Assommoir' and of 'Lourdes' 132,000, of 'La Terre' 113,000. He first sells the serial rights to some newspaper or magazine, and, when his novels appear in book form, he receives a royalty of 75 centimes (15 cents) per copy. The customary royalty is 10 per cent. of the gross retail price, but occasionally rises as high as 60 centimes for volumes at 3fr. 50c.

—A German translation of Freeman's 'History of Sicily,' by Bernhard Lupus of Strassburg, of which the first volume has just been published (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), is noteworthy for the close fidelity of its rendering, which is attained without sacrificing idiomatic ease of style. It is, indeed, a readable and attractive book, and its literary value is even greater than that of the original, inasmuch as it embodies a number of rectifications and additions in Freeman's appendices, and contains a fuller index, as well as more complete maps. Thus, for Freeman's general map of Sicily it substitutes Kiepert's, which contains more names of places. The translation has one peculiarity which is due to Freeman's diffuseness of style. It is generally assumed, and with justice, that the English language is more concise than the German, and can express the same meaning in fewer words; in the book before us the reverse is sometimes the case. Thus, in one instance the translator uses fourteen words to render what Freeman needs eighteen for, in another thirty-eight German words give us everything that Freeman said in forty-eight. Even a German *Gelehrter*, however, is not quite infallible, and there are occasional minor slips, as when "countless" is translated "endlos," instead of "unzälig," or "zahllos"; but these are unimportant and infrequent inaccuracies. Five volumes are promised, covering the period from B. C. 735 to 241, all that Freeman finished; a supplementary sixth volume will treat of the Norman conquest of Sicily as far as Freeman completed it. Expected works by Adolf Holm, Lothar von Heinemann, and Ettore Pais will probably complete the story that Freeman left half told. Of the mechanical execution of the book it is enough to say that it is worthy of the great reputation of Teubner.

—*Hamlet's* brutality to *Ophelia* is perhaps the hardest thing to understand in Shakspere. The editors and critics are baffled by it. The players have met the difficulty variously, but only by dint of interpolated action. Now comes a little book with an explanation which looks paradoxical, but which is so logically and persuasively presented, and with such appeals to evidence, that one is inclined to accept it and even to wonder if it has not always been one's own opinion. We refer to Mr. John Corbin's 'The Elizabethan Hamlet' (London: Mathews; New York: Scribners). Mr. Corbin proves—we think this is not too strong a word—that in the lost pre-Shaksperian "Hamlet," ascribed by Sarrazin to Thomas Kyd, the assumed madness of the hero had a comic aspect. In explaining why this is so, he throws light on the temper of an Elizabethan audience towards insanity and physical suffering. We are thus prepared to assent when, reminding us of Shakspere's ways in making over an old drama, he concludes that, in the first draught of Shakspere's "Hamlet," some traces of this archaic element of brutal comedy were retained, and that these were not refined out of existence when, in the later version, the character of *Hamlet* was deepened and the whole play ennobled. Mr. Corbin's procedure is scientific, and gives him occasion to discuss many questions of sources and versions. Into these we cannot enter in a brief notice. Though recently issued, the essay has already raised a very pretty debate, the progress of which we shall watch with interest.

COURTHOPE'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH POETRY.

A History of English Poetry. By W. J. Courthope, M.A. Vol. I. The Middle Ages: Influence of the Roman Empire—The Encyclopædic Education of the Church—The Feudal System. Macmillan. 1895.

ANY extended work on English literature from the pen of a critic so able as Mr. Courthope would call for more than passing notice. The volume before us, however, will attract unusual attention, for it deals with a period not heretofore regarded as this author's peculiar domain—the Middle Ages. No one could doubt from what point of view Mr. Courthope would contemplate his subject. His creed was laid down some ten years ago in his brilliant, if partisan, 'Liberal Movement in English Literature.' Indeed, the 'History' now beginning is an attempt to carry out in elaborate application the principles set forth in this earlier work—particularly in the lectures on "The Conservatism of the Eighteenth Century" and "Wordsworth's Theory of Poetry." Holding that all great poetry expresses the thoughts and feelings not merely of the poet, but of his people or his time, Mr. Courthope rejects as a critical process the method of "appreciation," or, as he phrases it, the method "which seeks to explain the character of all masterpieces of literature and art by personal sympathy and intuition." Such a method seems to him a kind of divination. Its results, therefore, are more likely to reflect the idiosyncrasy of the diviner than to reveal the truth. It is the business of the literary historian not so much to furnish biographies with appraisements and specimens as to define the influences, foreign or native, to which literature has been subjected, and to trace their fluctuations from age to age. These influences are, in Mr. Courthope's view, identical with those to be traced in political, religious, and social history; for the poet is, to him, rather the spokesman or interpreter than the creator, and utters not his own message, but the message of his time. In literature, as in politics, Mr. Courthope has a deep distrust of individualism and innovation. This distrust, besides making his general theory of poetical activity somewhat mechanical and depressing, affects his historical perspicacity and his sense of proportion. Constantly on the alert to detect a reason for the form or the matter of poetry in the thoughts or manners of a whole people or a class, he habitually underestimates the influence exerted by a great poet on his contemporaries and successors. His abrupt rejection of Gray's classification of English poetry on the ground that "the 'schools' of which [Gray] speaks existed only in a metaphor borrowed from the art of painting," illustrates the tendency to which we refer. Another illustration will be observed in his chapter on the Early Renaissance, where the distinctly literary influences at work are not duly emphasized in comparison with the stress laid on the political movements of the time. However, when all deductions have been made, the method pursued by Mr. Courthope is a sound one. It is well that the continuity of literary tradition and the essential unity of all literary study should be strenuously insisted on, particularly now, when teachers and educational theorists are prone to overlook this unity and to foment an illogical opposition between one department of literary study and another, setting up English, for example, against Greek, or the modern languages against the ancient. If Mr. Courthope finishes his 'History' in the spirit in which he has begun it, its general effect on the study of literature cannot fail to be good, whatever flaws may appear in the execution of the work.

After defining his method and the scope of his book, Mr. Courthope proceeds to "The Character and Sources of Mediæval Poetry." Then follow two chapters on Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman poetry. In the second of these the author attempts a history of the Saxon-Norman fusion of race so far as that fusion affected language, national character, culture, and imagination. This brings him to "The Early Renaissance." We have then a chapter on Langland, another on Chaucer, and one chapter each for "The Epical School of Chaucer," "The Progress of Allegory," "The Rise of the Drama," and "The Decay of English Minstrelsy." "A Retrospect" collects the threads.

The author makes every effort to reduce this varied material to order. Yet, in spite of his long preface, his careful "analysis of contents," his numbered headings, his repetitions, and his references backward and forward, the demonstration is not always easy to follow. Not that one's attention flags, for there are no dull pages in the volume. The difficulty comes rather from a kind of vagueness or wavering, produced—to adopt Mr. Courthope's favorite form of statement—by three causes: (1) a fondness for division and subdivision, resulting in a complex expository machinery; (2) a habit of conducting the argument in terms of abstractions; and (3) an inaccurate and frag-

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mentary acquaintance with the details of the subject. Of these qualities the first two are perhaps inseparable from Mr. Courthope's method; it is their combination with the third which does the mischief.

The qualities to which we refer are all illustrated in the extremely interesting chapter on the "Character and Sources of Mediæval Poetry." In this chapter the author argues brilliantly in support of his main thesis of literary continuity. He admits no hiatus between the decay of the Hellenic culture and the revival of learning. He denies that Hellenism and Christianity have been opposed to each other in the intellectual development of the world. Christianity, he contends, alone prevented the fabric of Roman civilization from falling to pieces. The Church, necessarily succeeding the effete Empire as a centralizing force, was the only power that could perpetuate any kind of culture. In modifying the encyclopædic education of later paganism to suit the needs of a transformed social and political order, it operated not as a destroying but as a conservative agency, for it kept alive some faint memory of the classic traditions while society was settling itself upon a new basis. Thus, when time was ripe, the revival of learning came by an easy and natural process, and not as a volcanic outburst of forces long held in repression. So far Mr. Courthope's argument —which will be recognized as identical with that in his essay on the "Conservatism of the Eighteenth Century"—is developed with brilliancy and vigor. But when he attempts to take the next step, and to account for "the extraordinary difference between classical and modern poetry," he loses his footing. His labored exposition, worked out with a complicated series of subheadings, and presenting the appearance of the utmost fulness, is in fact confused both chronologically and genetically, vague at points where sharp definition is imperative, and excessively incomplete. He has no competent knowledge of the difficult questions that obscure the origin and development of "popular" poetry and its relations to the poetry of art. He talks much of the *chanson de geste* and the *roman*, but he has no clear idea of their genesis and their place in literary history. The account given of the Charlemagne cycle is a shred; that of the romances of the Round Table is pathetically futile. He informs us that "the simple Teutonic *lied*, or lay, branches into such various kinds of epic composition as the *dit* (dicere), the *fabliau* (fabula), the *roman* (romanus), and such lyrical varieties as the *ballad* (balla), the *sonnet* (sonare), the *chanson* or *canzone* (canere)." And in general he exhibits such ignorance of the achievements of modern scholarship as must deprive his 'History' of all claim to be referred to as authoritative.

This unfavorable judgment is only confirmed when we examine the remainder of the volume. The treatment of Anglo-Saxon and Middle English is conspicuously incompetent. At the outset we are confronted with the following dictum: "Between the poetry produced in England before the Norman Conquest and the poetry of Chaucer there is absolutely no link of connection. In the poems of the Anglo-Saxons the general reader finds an expression of the mind of a nation cut off from the long tradition of civilization almost as completely as the Britons before they were brought under the Roman Empire." Though this utterance reveals itself later as merely a rhetorical exaggeration into which Mr. Courthope is betrayed in his revolt against those scholars who unduly magnify the Anglo-Saxon element in our literature, still the exaggeration is so monstrous as to make us approach the chapter on Anglo-Saxon poetry with some disquietude. Nor are our misgivings groundless. The superficiality displayed is not creditable to a writer of Mr. Courthope's standing. The errors, omissions, and fantastic disproportions of the chapter are hard to reconcile with a conscientious effort to get at trustworthy sources of knowledge. The solemn excursus on the composition of 'Béowulf' and the uninstructed notes on Cædmon will amuse such of our readers as happen to be acquainted with the present state of information on these subjects. The last few pages of the chapter are devoted to a sketch of the "decomposition of the Anglo-Saxon language." This sketch bids defiance to chronology, dialectology, and morphology, and could have been written only by a man profoundly ignorant of Anglo-Saxon and Middle-English as well as of the general workings of linguistic law.

Scarcely more successful are the author's observations on the history of English metre—a subject on which he has expended some time and thought, and to which he often reverts in the course of the volume. To begin with, he knows very little about Anglo-Saxon versification. His description of it is derived from the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale'; he has apparently never heard of the researches of Sievers, and no echoes of the strife now raging between the two-accent party and the four-accent party have disturbed his studies. With regard to Middle-English metre he is scarcely better informed. When he tries to explain how the preservation or decay of inflections is related to the development of versification, he becomes hopelessly confused. He is also quite unable to distinguish between Latin and French influence on the native measures. A cæsural dot, accidentally misplaced, leads him far astray in his scansion of Robert of Gloucester (p. 150). That the history of Middle-English alliterative verse is unknown to him, except in a fragmentary fashion, is shown both by what he says and by what he neglects to say. The omissions we have no space to record; of the distortions the closing paragraph of the chapter on Langland may serve as an instance. The sections on the metre of Chaucer and his successors require correction throughout. How patient the corrector must be, our readers can infer from the following sentence (p. 340):

"In a word, the syntax of Occleve, as well as the prosody of Lydgate, shows the tendency of the native Anglo-Saxon element to revolt against those foreign laws of grammar and harmony which had been imposed on the English language by the cultivated genius of Chaucer."

This single utterance betrays such misconceptions that it is almost enough to prove Mr. Courthope unfit to discuss Middle-English Literature, and indeed much of his discussion will not pass muster. In the first place, he is unable to read the language correctly, as his amusing errors in translation show.* Then he has too narrow an acquaintance with the literature of the period to enable him either to select with the best judgment or to generalize soundly. From the Conquest to Langland he treats Middle-English poetry mostly in connection with that of the Anglo-Normans, and in neither field is his guidance safe. He has not succeeded in defining the literary relations of the Anglo-Normans to France, or in distinguishing Anglo-Norman influence on English literature from French influence. He is almost equally at fault with regard to the literary relations of Wales with the Anglo-Normans and of the Normans with Brittany. The vexed Celtic question cannot be settled by referring to Pomponius Mela, Venantius Fortunatus, and the Abbé de la Rue! His "three well-defined stages" of Anglo-Norman poetry are not quite intelligible. In describing "the second and most important" of them, "extending from the close of the reign of Henry II. to the reign of Henry III.," he involves himself in hopeless confusion, especially with regard to the prose romances of the Round Table. "The third stage," he continues, "is marked by the works of Marie de France." One is somewhat startled at first by this chronological overturn, but the reason for it is soon apparent: Mr. Courthope has had the misfortune to follow obsolete authorities, and hence he has put Marie in the reign not of Henry II., but of Henry III.—a blunder that brings on serious consequences. It would be hard to devise a phrase less true to the facts than that in which he defines Marie's "great merit as a poet" as "the skill with which she has blended the opposing elements of the *fabliau* and the romance." The *fabliau*, we may add, has been already described as "the offspring of the primitive genius of the tribesman brought into contact with city life"—a bizarre definition, which makes the character just given to Marie seem the more perverse.

After this, one is not surprised to find Mr. Courthope's account of Middle-English poetry distorted and incomplete. One serious defect is his neglect of the metrical romances. If he had known something of these interesting compositions, he could not have failed to perceive the important bearing which several of them have on matters with which his book is vitally concerned. Some knowledge of 'Ywain and Gawain,' for example, would have given him light on the literary significance of Chrétien de Troyes. The mere reading of 'Gawain and the Green Knight' would have suggested to him a number of important observations which we miss at present. How much his chapter on Chaucer suffers from his neglect of this class of Middle-English poems our readers will easily imagine.

Under the rubric of "The Early Renaissance" Mr. Courthope has contrived to include a consideration of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, of the 'Roman de la Rose,' of Wright's 'Political Songs' in Latin, French, and English, and of Laurence Minot. This is accomplished by means of an excessively vague definition. To him the Renaissance is a complex movement arising from "(1) a general recognition of the authoritative theory of life in church and state; (2) an equally widespread sense that this theory was not working in harmony with the actual requirements of human society; and (3) an attempt to give expression in the vernacular speech to the thoughts awakened by the sense of discord." The treatment is ingenious and suggestive, but it illustrates in a striking manner the dangers of the author's method. He is so bent on making the Renaissance out to be the inevitable consequence of slowly and obscurely working political and social causes that he undervalues the workings of another cause of a less occult character: we refer, of course, to deliberate literary imitation inspired by the wish to emulate the ancients. We must confess, too, that we doubt the soundness of a definition which allows one to introduce Laurence Minot as an exponent or even an unconscious forerunner of

*See, for example, pp. 130, 132, 133, 188, 189, 241. The strange fashion in which an extract from the 'Ormulum' is printed at p. 123 may be compared with the alleged Anglo-Saxon that disfigures pp. 106 and 244.

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the Renaissance. Apart from questions of theory, however, the chapter contains one huge error in a matter of fact. We refer to the Courts of Love, which Mr. Courthope regards as highly significant phenomena, and which occupy a correspondingly important position in his discourse. Unfortunately, the latest news which he has heard on the matter is some seventy-five or eighty years old, and in the meantime scholars have not been idle. Thus it happens that his remarks are written—to repeat the words of a distinguished Italian whose elegant brochure on this subject would have been a revelation to Mr. Courthope—"con un candore di fede, un' ignoranza d'ogni dubbio, degni davvero del paradiso."

From Laurence Minot the author turns directly to Langland. A comparison of 'Piers Plowman' with the 'Divine Comedy' is the medium through which he looks at the art and purposes of Langland and at his place in our poetry, and not unnaturally his views are considerably affected by the nature of the medium. Still, there are many good remarks in the chapter, and the comparison, though the points of similarity and of contrast are occasionally forced, was on the whole worth making. Unfortunately, the author has not entirely recovered from the long-prevalent delusion which regarded Langland as a kind of belated Anglo-Saxon addressing the vulgar in the faltering metrical accents of a "last minstrel." Two curious blunders require a word. One is the notion that "Langland derived his conception of allegory mainly from the Miracle Plays." The other is contained in the remark that in the thirteenth century "no French poet seems to have raised his voice against the intolerable exactions and exaggerated luxury which attended the decay of feudalism." Mr. Courthope has heard of Eustache Deschamps—for he refers to his *ballade* to Chaucer—but apparently he knows him as a panegyrist only.

The long chapter on Chaucer is far from satisfactory. We have already adverted to the author's false conception of Chaucer's relations to the English language and English metre. His errors on these points are not merely discreditable in themselves; they seriously affect the accuracy of his general estimate of the poet. It may as well be said in plain terms that Mr. Courthope is no Chaucerian. He is but imperfectly acquainted with the work of his predecessors, and he does not always use with accuracy such sources of information as are accessible to him. Further, he does not know Chaucer's language quite well enough to read it without some limping sense of its remoteness. On no other theory can we account for the amazing assertion that "Chaucer rarely attempts the pathetic," and that "when he does, he usually has recourse to the machinery of interjections and apostrophes, by way of hinting to his audience that it is time to display a little emotion." Chaucer's humor, too, does not always reveal itself to him. Witness the solemnity with which he surveys "The House of Fame," and the result of the survey—the statement that "the poet wishes to present a moral and metaphysical view of the world in emulation of Dante." Another discovery is that the impatience of the Knight and the Host in the "The Monk's Tale" indicates "the dislike with which [Chaucer] and a large number of his countrymen regarded the educational discipline of the cloister." Frivolous is the remark that in the character of Pandarus "Shakespeare had afterwards merely to fill in the dramatic outline Chaucer had sketched." To call Chaucer's carefully finished delineation "an outline" is bad enough, but to imply that Shakspere's Pandarus is the same character as Chaucer's Pandarus is to forswear criticism.

We must hurry over the remaining chapters. In "The Epical School," Gower, Lydgate, and Hoccleve are discussed at some length, but no new light is thrown on the period, and there are, as usual, grave errors in matters of detail. We may specify the account of the supposed quarrel between Chaucer and Gower, and the excursus on Lydgate's verse. In the next chapter Mr. Courthope tries to show that "the development of allegory reflects very accurately the internal changes that modified the structure of society and men's system of thought during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries." The attempted demonstration is incomplete and not well-proportioned, and it is somewhat hampered by the perplexing machinery which the author insists on employing, but it contains a number of excellent observations. Of "The Rise of the Drama in England" the less said the better. It is one of the weakest chapters in the volume. The author has nothing new to tell us; he has not even presented a good account of what is already known.

More remarkable is "The Decline of Minstrelsy" in England. In this, with unwearied confidence in the exhaustiveness of his researches, Mr. Courthope undertakes to treat the extremely difficult subject of minstrels—scalds, *scopas* (*scôpas*, as he prints it, holding fast to an obsolete etymology), jongleurs, mimi, ballad singers—what not?—to trace the history of the metrical romance, and finally to unveil the whole mystery of the English ballad. We shall not follow Mr. Courthope in his wanderings. His conclusion, as we should expect, is to the effect that the ballad, "so far from being a spontaneous product of popular imagination, was a type of poem adapted, by the professors of the declining art of minstrelsy, from the romances once in favor with the educated classes." No doubt this conclusion, announced with much assurance by so distinguished a littérateur and supported by the appearance of learning, will be widely quoted and widely accepted. As a matter of fact, however, it is of no value. Mr. Courthope's acquaintance with mediæval literature, with Germanic and Romance philology, and with the theories and reasonings of scholars on the subject of *Volkspoesie*, is too slight to entitle his opinion on any of the subjects discussed to more weight than that which attaches to the *aperçu* of a clever amateur. The whole chapter, we regret to say, has no scientific importance.

We have been forced to criticise the work of Mr. Courthope with some severity; but we do not wish to belittle its merits. It abounds in good critical remarks and instructive generalities; it stimulates thought; it follows an enlightened method; it is written in a finished and attractive style; it breathes a spirit of admirable moderation. These are qualities which insure the book an influence alike extensive and lasting, and it is with this fact in mind that we have allowed our critique to occupy itself mainly with the author's limitations. The volume deserves a place in the library of every lover of letters, but it cannot be resorted to as a storehouse of trustworthy information. We look with some eagerness for the continuation of the work, for, in the parts that are to follow, the author will be upon ground with which he is well acquainted.

HARTMANN'S ESSAYS.

The Sexes Compared, and Other Essays. By Edward von Hartmann. Selected and translated by A. Kenner, M.A. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xl, 164.

It is difficult to avoid the supposition that the reader of a respectable publishing-house must have been nodding, or even half asleep, when he decided to issue this volume of essays. Neither in selection nor in execution does the venture seem to have been a happy hit. Among the subjects discussed are "Our Relation to Animals," "The Need of Books," and "My Relation to Schopenhauer." It is difficult to imagine who the readers are that will be interested in a repetition of the self-evident considerations which can be brought to bear against the anti-vivisectionists; in an argument for the reading of better books which involves the undertaking of the bookselling business by the post-office and the persuading of young men to postpone all participation in politics and even all reading of the newspapers until "about" their thirtieth year; and at the same time in the fact that between the Abstract One-Being and the subjective-ideal phenomena of consciousness there exists for Hartmann the objective-real (transcendental) phenomenal world of many individuals, while Schopenhauer, on the other hand, goes in for an internal development of the one will into several non-temporal acts of will, or intelligible characters of species and individuals. And it is equally difficult to imagine how any one who might have been interested in these essays in their original tongue could be able to preserve a serious frame of mind in reading this translation.

As a compendium of curiously meaningless sentences, the book is not without its charm; it would be unfair to our readers to withhold from them a taste of the good things which it contains. We are told not only that young men should shun newspapers, but also that "older men must cease to conveniently invest periodic literature with unmerited value." It is suggested that for the needy author a society should be formed "which will subject the manuscripts sent in to an honorary examination, and publish at its own cost those deemed worthy of publication." The imagination loses itself in trying to make out the nature of this "honorary" examination. We hear of a "nervous world-disgust, with its sickly harmoyance," of "the cloak of a transcendant religionism," and of a pessimistic theory which ends in Diskoly. "It would be very desirable to solve this technical problem, namely, to discover a method of issuing smaller editions, say 100 to 500 copies, which should be cheaper than the letterpress and at the same time present the usual appearance of small and large type." "Young men have never before put so high a price on their bachelorhood, and hope they might be spared the disappointment of marrying a poor maid." "For (as in England) it is the private house which enables one to keep a library for oneself. . . ." "It would also give to the school the opportunity of furthering such studies, as the history of art, with real use." "The cry against the increasing mortgages of large landed estates should be directed against the impetus given to the rapid rise in the prices of goods, by the advance in the habits of those families directly or indirectly deriving their daily bread from them."

And this is the standard which Mr. Kenner

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(mistaken name !) attains in the translation of poetry :

"Longing is the world's great secret,
All creation's growth and glow;
Towards everlasting concord
One eternal effort show."

There is no doubt that the interest in German metaphysics is on the wane in Germany. The vigorous young men of the universities devote themselves more and more to hard and close-grained science; in particular, those who have the philosophical turn of mind have a feeling of uneasiness if they have not had a good grounding in experimental psychology, and sound German thinkers are less and less imposed upon by the all-embracing and incomprehensible "systems" of the metaphysicians. A large part of the admiration which the plain scientific man has felt for them has come from the fact that they can keep their head in the midst of considerations of a tremendous degree of abstractness and complexity. That they keep their head wholly *straight*, no rival metaphysician, at least, will for a moment admit. That their logic is sometimes childishly weak, the scientific man cannot know, for he has no time to read their books; but their safeguard lies in writing nothing but metaphysics, and to issue volumes of popular essays is nothing less than reckless carelessness on their part.

It would be a grateful task to show up the tissue of unrealities and inconsequences which constitute Hartmann's proof that his "pessimism" is a comforting doctrine, but it would take too much space. One instance, however, of the course of the reasoning may be given, because it is so extremely typical of metaphysical reasoning in general. He says: "Selfish love *forgets* that in the posthumous life the countless souls are as indistinguishable from each other as the pebbles on the seashore." Monism, that form of it which accepts a future life and a loss of individuality, is a speculation which it may please some minds to make, but it is not a thesis of which any one human mind can hope to convince any other, nor is it a thesis which offers much interest to those who like to keep their grounded beliefs distinct from their poetry. But Hartmann, having offered a loose argument or two in favor of it, treats it as if it were an established truth, and proceeds to berate his opponent for having "forgotten" to include it among his premises. We must make room also for this passage (correctly summed up by the translator), which is enough to make one's head swim:

"We must base our conduct to [*sic*] animals on justice and not on sympathy. It is a mistake to think that animal torture is due to the deadening of the sympathetic sense. On the contrary, without a powerful capacity for feeling the pains of others, no pleasure would be derived from these barbarously depraved practices. Sympathy, then, is a false principle of conduct, and must be displaced by justice."

That Hartmann is no more capable of comprehending either the nature or the results of science than the scientist is of reading Hartmann, will be sufficiently evident from a single quotation, probably the most delicious scientific statement that has ever yet been printed: "Owing to the senseless bloodletting of the last century, we have become an anæmic and chlorotic race." And as a contribution to methodology, which it is to be hoped that future metaphysicians will take warning by, we must reproduce the following *argumentum ad hominem* in favor of building up one's system by inductive reasoning rather than by deductive:

"This difference is of the greatest importance. For as soon as we assume the fundamental principle of a deductive system, we must, willy-nilly, accept every part of it which has been demonstrated to be the result of a formally correct syllogism. In an inductive system, however, we need only ascend the pyramid as far as we like. . . . It is this crowning point of my system which has led to a condemnation and a refutation of the whole of my philosophy, notwithstanding that this proceeding could only be justified if my system were deductive and not inductive."

It will readily be imagined that Hartmann's discussion of the woman question is antiquated in the extreme. He considers that every woman has failed in the performance of her duty if she has not become the mother of eleven children—"two before the twentieth year, five in the twenties, three in the thirties, and one in the forties—eleven in all"; that "the postponement of the average nuptial age of girls till the twenty-seventh year is unnatural; . . . several children which might have been produced will forever be lost to the world"; and that "maidens cannot learn too early that it is . . . their task to add to the state as many sound and well-trained citizens as they are capable of producing, so that it may engage triumphantly in the struggle for national existence." He forgets the terrible strain which would be put upon individual existence were all "maidens" to take his advice seriously. Most modern German writers, too, consider that the serious economic evils under which Germany already labors are due to over-population, and Hegar, who has written the most important book on the subject, speaks wholly in favor, for Germany, of what he calls the *Zwei Kinder System*, which has so long prevailed in France. Hartmann believes that the chief source of present-day ills is girls' high schools, and he would gladly "put an end to this system with one stroke, and set our daughters back to the level of education with which our grandmothers were satisfied." A girl's school life renders her too refined and cultured to perform "her natural and social [*sic*] duties —nursing and housework." "From the sixteenth to the twentieth year she is therefore compelled to spend her time in idleness, if she is not engaged in scientific or artistic studies, which render her still more unfit for her future occupation as housewife." And one-third of the volume is devoted to berating women for not doing all their own housework, with the occasional assistance of a charwoman for the roughest part of it. If German women, with the absolute absorption which they show in the labors of the household, are still not able to satisfy German philosophers, they are indeed to be pitied. The Germans do not know that half the pleasure of life consists in social intercourse between men and women of a common degree of intelligence. And Hartmann has not one word to show that he is aware of the belief which other nations hold, that part, at least, of the function of the mother is to see that her children grow up to be graceful, intelligent, and high-minded human beings. What interest can his treatment of the subject have for English-speaking people ?

The Story of the Expansion of Southern Africa. By A. Wilmott. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. 1895.

THE great British colonies of Australia and South Africa and (to Europeans) Canada have now somewhat the same position in the eyes of the world that the United States had in the eyes of Europe early in the century. They are looked on as rather unknown regions, occasionally visited from motives of curiosity, where there are great tracts of land inhabited by a few not over-civilized settlers, and where the cities, like the fashions, are merely rough copies of better models. Australia vaguely suggests convicts, sheep-farms, and kangaroos; South Africa, diamonds, gold-mines, and Zulus. Their history or politics appears to have little interest or importance for the rest of mankind.

Of the three, South Africa is the least known, yet it well deserves attention, for there is growing up there a great state (or states) which will some day occupy a prominent place among nations, and which will have problems to solve that have seldom been encountered elsewhere. Mr. Wilmott's book is a short history of this country from the time of its discovery by white men to the present day. The volume is well worth reading for the importance of its subject, even if it does not suggest that its author is an eminent historian. He tells his story simply and dispassionately. Though an Englishman, he is just to the Dutch, recognizing the mistakes and sins of the British Government, such as the annexation of the Transvaal or the robbery of the West Grigua-Land diamond-fields from the Orange Free States. To the natives he is a little less fair. It may be true that "it was also found, later on, that the teaching of Christianity was impossible, and that white men could not occupy the country unless the power of the savage was broken and his military organization shattered." The question remains as to the morality of propagating Christianity and civilization at the point of the sword. Likewise, remarkable as Mr. Cecil Rhodes certainly is, he is hardly an ideal philanthropist, and though the Mashona expedition was composed of skilful and daring pioneers, they do not deserve more credit than many others who have risked and accomplished much in the search for gold. As for the Matabele war, it was no doubt bound to come sooner or later, but the disparity between the spears of the naked savages, however numerous, and the Maxim guns of their adversaries, was too great to make the campaign either interesting or admirable. Again, Lo Benguela was a savage like many another, the creature and victim of his circumstances, who will soon be forgotten. The following remark shows a curious idea of perspective: "Extraordinary repetitions and analogies in history ! Chaka was the first Napoleon of Southern Africa, Lo Benguela was the third." This black third Napoleon is soon after compared to Cato because he may have asked a friend to kill him.

South Africa is at the same time one of the oldest and the newest of colonies. The Cape of Good Hope, which was discovered by the Portuguese in 1486, was settled first by the Dutch in 1652. For the next two centuries its story was that of similar settlements—good and bad governors, hardships, discontents, wars with the natives, etc. The most important event during this period was its conquest by Great Britain in 1795, and definitively in 1806. Gradually the boundaries of the province spread, and the white population increased. Dissatisfied Boers who trickled into the wilderness founded Natal, then the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal Republic, into each of which British authority followed them to confiscate their independence, though the two latter have since regained it. The Zulu war in 1879 broke the power of the most dangerous native state, while the discovery of the Kimberley diamond-mines in 1875 proved a great source of wealth. But the recent history of South Africa, its aroused tenfold rate of activity and progress, dates from about ten

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years later. When the diamond industry made a profitable "Trust," gold in immense quantities was discovered in the Transvaal, and then further north fresh territories were rapidly annexed. Zambesia, or British Central Africa, was founded, boundaries were regulated by treaties with Germany and Portugal. Mashona-Land was occupied by a bold expedition, the Matabeles were crushed. Now South and Central Africa (*i. e.*, British, with the small Dutch States) stretch in one united region from the Cape of Good Hope to the neighborhood of the great lakes, and "the country from the Cape to the Zambesi alone embraces an approximate area of one and a quarter million square miles, and this is larger than British India." Much of this immense expanse possesses a temperate climate. It contains fertile land, great rivers, valuable mines; in fact, all it appears to need for greatness is a sufficiently large white population, even if we Americans are too familiar with such descriptions as "a paradise for the downtrodden struggling men and women in the gloomy, overcrowded countries of the north of Europe," to be deeply impressed by them.

It would seem as if such a land must have a great future. At the same time it will have difficulties of its own to deal with. As in Canada, the white population is of two nationalities, who by no means always get on smoothly together. But for the sudden recent immigration, the prolific Dutch element might probably have preponderated in the end; now the chances are rather in favor of the English. Then, too, there are foreign rivals, for if it is improbable that Portugal will ever do much with her possessions, the Germans, little as they have accomplished in Southwest Africa so far, are intelligent and determined. They may become powerful neighbors some day, and are sure to claim a share in any liquidation of Portuguese territory. Far more serious is the negro question. The black races of South Africa, once almost six times as numerous, "are now multiplying in a quicker ratio than white people." Of the perils of this situation we have recently spoken.

Louisiana Folk-Tales, in French Dialect and English Translation. Collected and edited by Alcée Fortier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. [Memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society. Vol. II.] 8vo, pp. xi, 122.

THE American Folk-Lore Society began last year the publication of an annual volume of memoirs, the first of which, already noticed in this journal, was devoted to the folk-tales of Angola. These stories from the west coast of Africa were not inappropriately published in the memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society, as it has been shown that a considerable part of the folk-lore of our own negroes was brought by their slave ancestors from that country. The second volume of the society's memoirs continues, as it were, the first, and presents an interesting and valuable collection of Louisiana folk-tales.

The collector, who is professor of the Romance languages in Tulane University, has heightened the value of his work by giving the original Creole text as well as an English translation. He says in his introduction: "It is very difficult to make a complete collection of the negro tales, as the young generation knows nothing about them, and most of the old people pretend to have forgotten them." This is the common experience of collectors, especially where they are of a different race from the story-tellers, and it requires great tact and perseverance to overcome the narrator's shyness. Still, there is no doubt that the popular literature of the Indians and negroes is rapidly disappearing, and that it was time for some organized body like the American Folk-Lore Society to save what it could from perishing.

Of the forty-one stories in the volume before us, fourteen have already been published in the Transactions of the Modern Language Association of America, 1885, and in the *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for the same year. The twenty-seven stories which appear here for the first time in print are divided into fifteen "Animal Tales" and twelve "*Märchen*," and the names and addresses of the narrators are carefully given in the notes, where may be found a few parallels from European folk-lore. The editor has expressly disclaimed any attempt to make a comparative study of the tales, and they are presented to folk-lorists as material for study. It would, however, have been a great advantage if the American variants and parallels at least had been given. This is the method pursued by Pitrè in his grand collection of Sicilian folk-lore, and is undoubtedly the correct one. The collector, for many reasons, should be familiar with the field in his own country; he cannot always be expected to know that of other countries. Nor would Prof. Fortier's task have been difficult or protracted, as few of the new stories have parallels, so far as we have found. We have noticed, however, the following: No. i, "The Elephant and the Whale"=Hartt ('Amazonian Tortoise Myths') p. 20, Smith ('Brazil and the Amazons') p. 545, Harris ('Uncle Remus,' 1881) p. 111; Nos. iv, xiii, "Compair Lapin and Compair L'Ours" and "Compair Lapin's Godchild"=Grimm, No. 2, "The Cat and Mouse in Partnership"; No. xvi, "King Peacock," *cf.* Grimm, No. 53, "Little Snow-White"; No. xvii, "The Singing Bones"=Grimm, No. 28, "The Singing Bone"; No. xviii, "Jean Sotte," *cf.* Grimm, No. 22, "The Riddle"; No. xix, "The Devil's Marriage" is a combination of "Bluebeard" with the theme of "Flight of lovers, and obstacles thrown in pursuer's way"; No. xxiii, "The Men who became Birds"=Grimm, No. 49, "The Six Swans"; No. xxv, "The Basket of Flowers," is the story of the "Thievish Magpie" (*La gazza ladra*); No. xxvi, "John Green Peas," *cf.* Grimm, No. 61, "The Little Peasant." Appendix No. i, "The Tar Baby"='Uncle Remus,' pp. 23, 29; No. ii, "Compair Bouki and Compair Lapin," *cf.* 'Uncle Remus,' pp. 70, 89; No. iv='Uncle Remus' pp. 89, 143; No. vi='Uncle Remus,' p. 34; No. vii=Jones, 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast'), p. 94; No. viii, see 'Roman de Renart,' ed. Méon, Paris, 1826, i., p. 29, *cf.* Bleek, 'Reynard the Fox in South Africa,' p. 16, Jones, p. 102, and *Modern Language Notes*, 1890, pp. 129, etc.; No. ix., "The Cunning Old Wizard"=Grimm, No. 98, "Doctor Knowall"; No. xi, "The Talking Eggs," see a Creole story published by L. Brueyre in *Mélusine*, vol. i., p. 43, cited by Fortier when this story was first printed in the *Journal of American Folk Lore*, 1888; and No. xiv, "Give Me," *cf.* Grimm, No. 85, "The Gold-Children."

Some of the other stories contain familiar episodes, as in No. ii, "Compair Taureau and Jean Malin," where an animal (bull) assumes human shape and courts a lady; No. x, "The Tortoise," where the tortoise escapes from the boy in a way which recalls the famous story in 'Barlaam and Joasaph' (see Gaston Paris, *Le lai de l'oiselet*, Paris, 1884); appendix, No. v, "Compair Bouki and Compair Lapin," No. 3, in which the tree opens and shuts like the robbers' cave in the "Forty Thieves." Finally, in No. xiii, "The Golden Fish," we have an incomplete and distorted version of "The King of the Fishes" (see Hartland, 'The Legend of Perseus,' 1894, chapter ii).

The stories in the present collection are not nearly so interesting as those in 'Uncle Remus,' or even in Jones's 'Negro Myths from the Georgia Coast,' but they constitute a very valuable and welcome addition to the stock of American negro tales, and the handsome volume in which they are contained is another evidence of the vitality and intelligence of the American Folk-Lore Society, which richly deserves the support of scholars and patrons of learning.

My Literary Passions. By W. D. Howells. Harpers.

MR. HOWELLS, having achieved eminence "in the line of his highest activity," need feel no concern at his failure as a critic. He can answer "non omnia" when his assailants rage. And indeed the flurry caused by his confession of heretical opinions has pretty well subsided. The republic of letters is not a South American republic. It is in no danger of armed revolt under his banner. The perpetual and necessary swing from the romantic to the "real," and back again to the romantic, has not been retarded or accelerated by his utterances or by the protests of the old guard, "*Yet* all goes well; *yet* all our joints are whole." Hence we infer that the hearty professions of extreme dogma which occasionally enliven the quiet pages of 'My Literary Passions' will not keep the most nervous admirer of Thackeray awake o' nights. They are not dangerous, and they do possess a curious documentary interest. Mr. Howells himself describes his successive enthusiasms as, collectively, a "perennial literary youth." His latest "passion" is as fresh and generous as any that have gone before. Mr. Howells thinks it will be lasting. Perhaps he is right; for his worship of Tolstoy is not merely literary—it satisfies his ethical nature; and one sees, in reading these pages, more clearly than ever, that his critical standards are really ethical standards after all. But the chief interest of the book is not so much literary as autobiographical. Slender as these papers are, and little as they content those of us who would have the author always worthy of himself, they still contain, in fragments, some record of a strenuous and happy boyhood. In this regard they can claim indulgence for their haste and their trifling, and may even challenge a hesitating respect.

Life of Thomas Pinckney. By his grandson, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE Pinckneys of South Carolina deserve a fit memorial of their public services in the last century, but it is impossible to give praise to the present Life. The military record of Thomas Pinckney in the Revolution was not of sufficient moment to offer material for a lengthy notice, though it secured him an appointment in the war of 1812. As Minister to England and to Spain, in which latter capacity he negotiated the treaty of San Ildefonso, giving the United States definite and valuable privileges on the Mississippi, he rendered important services, and was successful in dealing with the delicate questions then dividing the nations. As Governor of the State and as Congressman, he stood high in the esteem of

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his contemporaries, and had more than one opportunity for promotion at the hands of Washington or the call of party. No matter what office he held or what duty he had to perform, he displayed a ready energy and unselfish devotion that enhanced his reputation and benefited his country. His love of agriculture and his earnest and intelligent efforts to improve methods of culture then in vogue place him by the side of Washington.

Not one incident of Pinckney's career receives adequate treatment in this Life. A very few, hardly a dozen in all, unpublished letters of Pinckney are given. Everything else is a restatement of what was already known, or a curious exaggeration of what is trivial and unimportant. What is called the "Tench Coxe letter" is treated at greater length and with more solemnity than the Spanish mission and the resulting treaty. Yet this letter was one written in a moment of spleen by John Adams, containing a charge of English influence on Pinckney which was beneath notice. None of Pinckney's "state papers," military letters, or despatches are reproduced, and the frequent comparisons between men and events in the Revolution and in the civil war of 1861-'65 are in questionable taste, as they have no immediate connection with the subject. In place of original research, a quotation from Lodge, Dallas, Bancroft, Ingersoll, or Garden is given; instead of original documents, the reader is treated to hasty generalizations, or a crude sketch of contemporary events in which Pinckney took little or no part. In short, it is discouraging to receive such a work in a critical spirit, for it is cast in the historical methods of fifty years ago, neither worthy of the subject, nor, we sincerely hope, of the author.

If the Pinckney papers are in existence (and even of this we are left in doubt), his grandson cannot do better than to print them as they are, and let his ancestor tell his own story. In this way he can confer a lasting benefit upon his family and his State, and give material aid to all sincere students of American history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Balzac, H. de. At the Sign of the Cat and Racket. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Desmond, H. J. Mooted Questions of History. Benziger Bros.
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Lawless, Hon. Emily. Grania. Macmillan. 50 cents.
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Meyer, Rev. F. B. Christ in Isaiah: Expositions of Isaiah XL.—LV. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Nelson, A. L. The Money We Need. Harpers.
Potts, William. From a New England Hillside. New ed. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Roark, R. N. Psychology in Education. American Book Co. $1.
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